

The Nation

VOL. XXXIX.—NO. 993.

THURSDAY, JULY 10, 1884.

PRICE 10 CENTS.

Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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BLACK HALL SCHOOL.—A family and Preparatory School for a few boys. Thorough instruction and careful training. Best of references given. CHARLES G. BARTLETT, Principal.

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MISS PUTNAM WILL OPEN THE nineteenth year of her Family and Day School for Young Ladies, Thursday, September 24, 1884, at No. 68 Marlborough Street. Special attention given to little girls. Refers, by permission, to Hon. Wm. M. Everts, Prof. A. P. Feabody, D.D., Cambridge, Mass.; Rev. Henry A. Colt, D.D., Principal St. Paul's School, Concord, N. H.; and many other eminent scholars. Prospectus sent on application to Principal.

MISS PUTNAM'S SCHOOL.

To the Editor of the Transcript: In listening to the class-day exercises of Miss Putnam's School, at No. 68 Marlborough Street, on the 5th inst., we were specially impressed by the value of that discipline which secures the mental assimilation of the knowledge acquired that it becomes an individual, inalienable possession. The sublime selections from the Holy Scriptures, the reading of Shakespeare's drama of "King Lear," the rendering of the same into French, the original French dialogues by juniors and seniors, the German readings from Schiller, the fine recitation in the higher mathematics—all these exercises, interspersed with pleasant music, both vocal and instrumental, clearly indicated that the instruction in this school had not been given as task work; but had introduced the pupils to an appreciative mental acquaintanceship with the great minds whose works they had studied. The Latin recitations came next, and were of exceptional excellence. The Odes, Epistles, and Satires of Horace were so rendered into English as to reveal the most delicate and subtle shades of thought and feeling in the great Latin poet and philosopher. But in the several essays that were read perhaps the great range of subject matter that had been studied, and the heights of thought to which the pupils had been carried, were more fully manifested. The essay upon "The Rise and Progress of English Literature" presented necessarily but an outline view, but yet a view opening up into vistas on every hand, suggesting the fulness, variety, and richness of the filling up. Our narrow limits prevent our noticing, with any approach to justice, two remarkable essays—one upon "The Harmony Existing between God's Two Books, Revelation and Nature," the other, the valedictory, by the graduate, upon "The Internal and External Proofs that the Holy Scriptures are the Word of God." These subjects were treated by a depth of thought rarely shown by young writers. But not alone the acquisition of knowledge in a wealth of forcible illustration, not alone the development of the reflective and reasoning faculties, were apparent; but above and beyond these shone out the unconscious influence of the living presence of the teacher, through whom a higher uplifting and a more spiritual insight had been imparted than could have been derived from the study of the printed page. In these days of scepticism, the education that is based upon the great primal truths of Revelation cannot be too highly prized; for it is in youth that the intuitive perception of these great truths is clearest, and can then, by judicious training, be best strengthened into spiritual power and growth.

June 19, 1884.

M. T. H.

MASSACHUSETTS, Quincy.

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MASSACHUSETTS, West Bridgewater.

HOWARD COLLEGIATE Institute.—Boarding and Day School for Girls and Young Women. Address the Principal.

HELEN MAGILL, Ph.D.,

Graduate of Swarthmore Coll., Boston Univ., and Newham Coll., Cambridge, England.

MASSACHUSETTS, West Newton.

WEST NEWTON ENGLISH AND Class Schools.—The 32d School Year of this Family and Day School for Boys and Girls will begin Sept. 17, 1884. For catalogue, address NATH'L T. ALLEN.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

ORAD INSTITUTE FOR YOUNG Ladies. Address Rev. JOHN G. MCHOLLAND, LL.D.

MICHIGAN, Orchard Lake.

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NEW HAMPSHIRE, Exeter.

PHILLIPS EXETER ACADEMY.—The 102d year begins September 1st. For Catalogue, apply to the Secretary.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, Portsmouth.

THE ELEVENTH YEAR OF MISS A. C. MORGAN'S well-known School for Young Ladies will commence September 24, 1884. Early application is desirable.

NEW JERSEY, New Brunswick, 13 Livingston Ave.

THE MISSES ANABLE'S English and French Boarding and Day School for Young Ladies and Children will reopen September 17.

Continued on page 11.

JUST ISSUED:

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OF

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Table of Prices by

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YEARLY RANGE OF ACTIVE STOCKS.—Date of highest and lowest prices made in the years 1882 and 1883, and to July in 1884.

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DIVIDENDS ON RAILROAD STOCKS sold at the Exchanges in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, paid during each of the six years, 1878 to 1883, inclusive, and prior to July in 1884.

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The Nation.

CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK.....	21
SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.....	24
EDITORIAL ARTICLES:	
The Chicago Convention.....	26
Mr. Brewster's Testimony.....	26
The Veto of the Porter Bill.....	27
The Poor Egyptians.....	27
SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:	
George Sand's Correspondence.....	28
Germany Revisited.....	29
CORRESPONDENCE:	
The Eight-Hour Law and the Republican Platform.....	30
Students of the University of Wisconsin.....	30
Archæology and the Turkish Officials.....	30
NOTES.....	31
REVIEWS:	
Gindely's Thirty Years' War.—I.....	35
Malaria in Italy.....	37
Books about the Stage.....	37
The Elements of Political Economy.....	38
The American Horsewoman.....	39
Wit, Wisdom, and Philosophy of Jean Paul Friedrich Richter.....	39
Biographie Vendemoise.....	40
Superior Fishing.....	40
BOOKS OF THE WEEK.....	40

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Married.

OTTO-MYERS.—On Tuesday, July 1st, 1884, at Frankfort, by Rev. A. Myers, the bride's father, Prof. Samuel M. Otto, of Philadelphia, Pa., to Miss Jennie A. Myers, of Frankfort, N. Y.

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Schools.

Continued from first page.

NEW YORK, Albany.
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NEW YORK, Aurora, Cayuga Lake.
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NEW YORK, Troy.
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PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1350 Pine Street.
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PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia.
THE MISSES L. V. SMITH AND R. S. Ashbridge's Boarding and Day School for Young Ladies and Children will reopen September 24, 1884, at 1833 Chestnut Street.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 10, 1884.

The Week.

THE most severe thing which can be said of the late session of Congress is that it was almost entirely barren of important legislation. It is soundly berated by the Republican party journals for doing nothing, but that is after all not so grievous a fault as doing something harmful. If it did not have the courage for enacting some much needed legislation, it refrained from enacting any that can be called injurious, and it stood manfully in the way of some which was positively bad. Its failure to do anything with the tariff was not unexpected, and the Republicans ought to be the last persons to complain of it, for they are going to make their Presidential campaign on the basis that the industrial interests of the country ought not to be disturbed by tariff changes. It would have been a most desirable thing to have the House agree with the Senate in passing a bill providing new regulations for the electoral count and the Presidential succession, but the eve of a Presidential election is not the time most favorable for legislation of that sort. The Republicans had a fine opportunity to make the needed changes when they had a majority in both branches of Congress, but they failed to improve it.

The most valuable work of the session was the passage of the Dingley Shipping Bill, and the refusal to grant the mysterious Nicaraguan appropriation and the \$2,000,000 for the construction of new cruisers for the navy. There was a natural suspicion among the Democrats that these appropriations might in some way have an important influence on the campaign, and there was certainly no risk in letting them wait till the next session. Of the other appropriation bills it can only be said that they are about the same as usual. They were passed with the usual rush at the end, but there are no charges that they are extravagant or contain any noticeably outrageous "jobs." Indeed, with all its dilatoriness and lack of courage, the late session has left a record singularly free from scandals, and the results of its work will be searched in vain for "big grabs" or "jobs" out of which to make campaign thunder. In intellectual calibre the majority was palpably weak, and the record of its daily debates has been very dreary reading; but even in this respect it does not compare unfavorably with its immediate predecessor, which chose Keifer for its leader, and which by unanimous consent was pronounced at its end to have had in him a fair representative, both in ability and moral tone. There has been nothing in the session just closed to compare with the odium of Keifer's career, rounded off as it was at the close by his shameful act of taking a few thousand dollars from one of the official stenographers and giving it to his nephew, who had done nothing to earn it.

The hollowness and insincerity of the Democratic opposition to Governor Cleveland is

well exhibited in the frequent references made to his veto of the Five-Cent-Fare Bill. At a meeting of so-called workingmen in Buffalo on Wednesday, anti-Cleveland resolutions were passed, based in part upon this grievance. The workingmen of Buffalo, it should be remarked, have no more interest in five-cent fares on the elevated railroads of New York than they have in the fares on Parliamentary trains in England. But they voted that a great wrong had been done, and this, we believe, is John Kelly's opinion, although he does not push it to extremes in Jay Gould's presence. The Five-Cent-Fare Bill was passed in the teeth of a charter which says that no such bill shall be passed until it shall have been ascertained that the elevated roads are earning more than a certain amount of money on the capital actually invested in them. No such fact had been ascertained. The last previous examination made by public authority showed that they were not earning the stipulated amount. Under these circumstances Governor Cleveland vetoed the bill, as it was his clear duty to do. Probably the Buffalo workingmen who passed this resolution exercise their industry most effectively in the saloons of that laborious place.

The Massachusetts Independents are organizing the opposition to Blaine with a thoroughness and energy which may show the Blaine leaders that they must begin their campaign on the supposition that Massachusetts is a doubtful State. The Secretary of the Boston Independent Committee says that they have already on their lists over 5,000 names of men who will not vote for Blaine, and he estimates that these names represent a bolting force of 15,000 or 20,000 voters. This is not an improbable estimate. In Massachusetts, as well as in other States, the number of Republicans who are willing to sign a pledge to oppose their party's ticket bears only a small proportion to the number who will refuse to vote the ticket, while saying nothing about their course. It was this silent vote which rolled up Cleveland's tremendous majority in 1882, and it is the unknown possibilities of it this year that is weighing so heavily upon the spirits of the Blaine boomers. The Massachusetts Independents intend to increase it as much as possible by thorough organization and systematic work, and will extend their labors to all parts of the State. Ex-Mayor Prince said in Chicago on Friday that enough had been done already to insure the electoral vote of the State to either Cleveland, Bayard, or McDonald, and it may be that he is not far from right.

There are rumors that efforts are making to have one of the old "pastors" withdrawn from further service in the Blaine campaign. The offender is the Rev. T. H. Ecob, now of Albany but formerly of Augusta. He began very well, but his enthusiasm carried him too far. In his first letter he drew a beautiful picture of the "noble old South Church of Augusta," with the Blaine pews filled every

Sunday with the members of the Blaine family and anybody else who happened to be its guest. In his second letter, however, Mr. Ecob undertook to vindicate Mr. Blaine from the charge of having been a Catholic in his youth, and in his zeal he made this astounding observation: "If, as a little child, he took his mother's hand and walked with her to church, why, there is a good Protestant day of judgment coming which will, no doubt, purify as by fire the touch of that mother's hand. Some of the city papers, and many of the country papers, will please take note of this fact: Mr. Blaine is not a Catholic, but a straight-out New England orthodox Congregationalist." It is feared now that this will make trouble with the Irish Catholic vote, which was coming over so rapidly to Blaine, and Mr. Ecob and the other old pastors are besought to withhold any further testimonials for the present, as the Blaine managers do not desire to raise the "religious issue." It is strange that they could not have seen the folly of raising such an issue at the start. It has no place in a campaign, and we believe it is a fact that it has invariably got the candidate and his friends starting it into trouble. Mr. Blaine's friends have nobody to blame except themselves for precipitating it into their remarkable canvass. They hailed it joyfully as a fine contribution to the grand humbug platform upon which they are hoping to win success.

In answer to several correspondents who desire information as to where Blaine's letters of June 29, July 2, and October 4, 1869, and the report of the Investigating Committee can be found, we reply that the letters in question were published in the *Nation* of May 1 and in *Harper's Weekly* of May 10 in full, and that the report of the House Committee of 1876 contains the other evidence. The latter is now scarce, but will probably become plentiful when the canvass finally opens. The letters have not appeared and will not appear in any Blaine paper, and no explanation of them will probably ever be offered by any supporter of that gentleman. The course his friends take with regard to them—and we think wisely take—is to refer to them in a vague way as "stale slanders," or "exploded calumnies." Some of the bolder ones are not only "almost ready to deny their existence," but do deny it. This is really for them the simplest and easiest way of dealing with them, and it is an old way. When some of the late Fernando Wood's rascalities were exposed during his last canvass for the Mayoralty in this city, he met them by pronouncing them boldly "an eternal lie against humanity." This was a good stroke, and brought thunders of applause from the meeting he was addressing, for nothing can be worse than an eternal lie against humanity. By close adherence to this policy, in fact, all charges against every member of the human family could be successfully met, and the race, for the first time in its history, made to present a spotless appearance.

General Logan has defended himself successfully against the heinous accusation of being the owner of 80,000 acres of land, and has partially, if not wholly, rebutted the charge that he attempted, or helped others in an attempt to deprive the Zuñi Indians of their springs and water courses. The *Herald*, in whose columns the charge was recently, though not originally, made, considers the defence unsatisfactory, and hints that General Logan has not even yet desisted from the endeavor to despoil the Zuñis. The admitted facts in the case are that the official survey of the Zuñi reservation did not include the springs, although they really belonged to it, and that Captain Tucker, General Logan's son-in-law, entered the land on which they were situated, as he had the legal right to do, and that General Logan gave him assistance, as he had the right to do. The mistake in the survey was discovered and ultimately rectified. General Logan admits that he defended Captain Tucker's claims after the mistake was discovered. But as the rights of all the claimants were a matter of dispute, General Logan certainly had the right to his own opinion; and if he had it while the question was open, he has it now. As the Zuñis have got their survey rectified, the accusation against General Logan will not count for much in the campaign.

In the House on Saturday night Mr. Burnes, of Missouri, reported from the Conference Committee on the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation Bill a continued disagreement on the "Nicaraguan waterway" appropriation of \$250,000. He undertook to give the House an explanation of the reasons for objecting to the item, and came nearer doing so than anybody else has done. He did not altogether succeed, for the simple reason that he tried to give the reasons without giving all the facts. Certain rights, he said, had been obtained by certain American citizens to construct a canal across the Isthmus; but the precise nature of these he does not appear—so far as the despatches inform us—to have described. The citizens were to have done the work by October 24 next; hence the necessity for haste. Like other citizens, they were "moving on with bright and brilliant prospects," when suddenly they were overtaken by "misfortune"—not disease or death or loss of friends so much as pecuniary trouble or lack of funds. Up to this point everything is comparatively plain sailing. They had got a concession on certain terms; they had failed to comply with the terms; they were in trouble. Now, like a flash came "the suggestion" to the Appropriations Committee that the concession was an "immensely valuable thing"; that it might be made the "great prize to be drawn from the diplomatic lottery of this great American Republic." The suggestion first was that it would be an "advantageous trade" for the Government to give a good round sum to the American gentlemen for their rights. To this proposition the Appropriations Committee at once replied, Millions for defence, but not one cent for a job, or words to that effect.

Then the suggestion suddenly changed its form, and it was proposed that the negotia-

tion should not be with the gentlemen, but with "another government." It now appeared, however, or was "conceded," as Mr. Burnes puts it, that "a portion of the gentlemen interested in the original concession were citizens of the State in which the work was to be done, and that whatever contract might be made and whatever money might be expended would be made with and paid to the gentlemen in that State. Following close on the heels of the \$250,000 was to come either \$1,200,000 or a 'good round sum.' Then, if all this were not child's play, it meant \$75,000,000 for the experiment of building a canal, or, according to other engineers, \$300,000,000." A warm discussion ensued, and the House refused to recede from the disagreement. The sum and substance of the story as far as can be made out is that Mr. Frelinghuysen has not succeeded in persuading the House that the appropriation does not cover a job or gratuity of some kind. A secret appropriation of money, to be used by the Administration at its discretion, may at times be a good thing, but it is something which no Administration can expect to get unless it has the confidence of the House. The debate throws little or no light on the canal question.

It was not to be expected that the Democratic majority in the House would vote some millions of dollars to be expended in naval architecture under the auspices of Secretary Chandler during a Presidential campaign. Probably in any other year measures for the reconstruction or improvement of the navy would receive more favorable consideration, but it is not in human nature to put weapons in the hands of an enemy to knock out one's own brains with. It is the fixed belief of the Democrats that if Chandler had \$2,000,000 to expend on ships he would easily raise all the funds needed for the campaign without levying assessments on department clerks and other officials. This belief may be entirely erroneous, but Chandler's reputation is of that shady sort which is well calculated to inflame the imagination of the other side in politics, and to impel them to put every possible curb and check upon him. His career as a "visiting statesman" in Florida in 1876 was of itself sufficient to alarm the suspicions of every Democrat, and to put them on their guard in every direction. The failure of the appropriation is due not to the indifference of the Democratic party to the naval defences of the country, but to their distrust of Chandler as a managing politician.

The Porter case abounds in curious incidents. The President's veto of the bill restoring him to the army on constitutional grounds, which was overruled in the House, has been sustained in the Senate by a tie vote, we presume also, in the case of many Senators, on constitutional grounds. What is curious about this is, that a reference to the Army Register shows that Congress and the President have in no less than ten other cases concurred in doing the very thing which the President now says Congress has no right to do, and which he thinks it would be improper for him to do—that is, in restoring to his rank in the ser-

vice an officer wrongfully dismissed by sentence of court-martial. These cases are those of Surgeon-General Hammond, Capt. Geo. A. Armes, Lieut. Edward R. Clarke, Major Joseph B. Collins, Capt. James B. Sinclair, Capt. P. W. Stanhope, Capt. Thomas B. Hunt, Major N. H. McLean, Lieut. Lowell A. Chamberlain, Capt. George T. Olmsted. They may be found in the Army Register, and they are, taken in connection with the President's veto, and the votes of many of the Senators, rather odd reading. What the veto ought to have contained, was simply this: "For various reasons, political and other, which I intend to keep to myself, I do not wish to restore Fitz John Porter to his rank in the army, and I am not going to do it. It has been suggested in some quarters that Congress has no constitutional right to authorize or direct me to do it; but this, everybody knows, is mere buncombe."

The President's entire argument is disposed of by the case of Surgeon-General Hammond, mentioned above. This officer, the head of an important bureau, was dismissed in due form by sentence of court-martial August 18, 1864. An act of Congress, approved March 15, 1878, in its first section authorized the President to review the proceedings of that court-martial, and to annul and set aside its findings and sentence if, upon review, he should deem it right and proper so to do. The second section, in the event of the findings and sentence thus being set aside, further authorized the President to place General Hammond upon the retired list (without pay or allowances), and on August 27, 1879, he was restored to the army, and his name was placed on the retired list, where it yet remains. Without judging of the merits of General Hammond's restoration, the legal conditions seem to include all the points, and more, that General Porter's case presents. In the face of such precedents the President's objections have no logical value.

The riotous and threatening demonstrations which are taking place in various parts of the country on the part of railroad hands whose wages are withheld by their employers in order that the latter may meet what they choose to regard as more pressing demands, call for severe animadversion if not for legislative interposition. Railroad officials have no more right to levy a forced loan on their employees in order to meet their mortgage interest than they have to draw a check on a bank where they have no funds. The latter proceeding would be vastly less hurtful to society, because it would involve no breach of the peace. Withholding the wages of laboring men who have families to support always leads to great suffering, and in cases where the laborers are foreigners, little acquainted with our laws and language, the provocation to riot and bloodshed and pillage is very great. A few days since a tale came over the wires from Wisconsin, showing how two or three hundred men had walked from a distant station two days through heat and dust, begging food along the road, in order to present their appeal for what was justly due them to the head office of a railroad company. Other cases of outrage and suffering nearer home

are of frequent occurrence. The law ought to provide that in all cases wages of operatives shall take precedence of every other claim against a railroad or other corporation; and this for a variety of reasons which prevail in Mechanics' Lien Laws and in the laws regulating the assignment of bankrupt estates. A railroad company which is under the necessity of borrowing money from its brakemen, and trackmen, and freight-handlers in sums of ten or twenty dollars each, without their consent, ought to go into a receiver's hands at once and not be permitted to expose innocent communities and passengers to the risks of public disorder through such shifty financiering.

An underground railroad has been discovered leading from British Columbia to Washington Territory, adapted to the conveyance of Chinese laborers into the United States, contrary to law. A newspaper published on or near the line of travel, called the *Modisto Strauchuck* or *Saruck*, speaks from "positive knowledge," saying that the business of "running" Chinese into the United States is a well-organized branch of industry, and that "white men" are making money out of it. The nefarious traffic is carried on principally in the night. Small sailing craft start from Victoria laden with Chinese, and under favoring winds and darkness run past Port Townsend and land their cargo anywhere along the coast. It would require at least 500 men to guard the line, says the editor. The Collector of Port Townsend, he adds, is not to blame, because he has not the force at his disposal to intercept the smugglers. Evidently, Congress has not done its whole duty. The "further legislation" called for by the Republican platform ought to embrace a law modelled on the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850, with liberal rewards to informers and double fees for conviction, and conferring power on United States marshals to summon all good citizens to join in the chase.

Harvard College has apparently made its refusal to make Governor Butler an LL.D. a rule for future observance, for it has passed over Governor Robinson also, who, like Butler, has been forced to content himself with an Amherst degree. If so, the rule is certainly a wise one. The way in which honorary degrees are lavished by American colleges on all sorts of people has done much to bring even legitimate university honors into contempt. Every honor in this country, where there is no such thing as hereditary honor, ought to mean as nearly as possible what it professes to mean on its face. Degrees which imply on their face the possession of some kind of learning, when given to any one, no matter how meritorious on other grounds, who has no learning at all, are a sham, and there is, or ought to be, no place in American colleges for sham. Calling a man a Doctor of Laws because he has been elected Governor or President ought with us to be as absurd as calling him a Doctor of Medicine, or Music, or Divinity, or a Great Chemist. The absurdity is of course all the greater when the honor is bestowed on a man who makes sport of university education,

and professes to believe that a man is better without it.

The defeat of Mr. Gladstone's Franchise Bill by the House of Lords is probably the greatest surprise which has taken place in British politics since the overthrow of Beaconsfield in 1880. It was thought not unlikely when the bill was first introduced in April last, but the tide of opinion in its favor throughout the country has since run so high, and all Conservative attempts to impede its progress in the Commons have met with such ignominious defeat, that the public had apparently settled down into the belief that the Lords would not dare to resist it, if only for fear of making the very existence of the Upper House one of the issues at a general election, in case of dissolution. The real ground of resistance is of course the old and natural fear that it will result in the loss of the counties to the land-holding class, of which they have been the stronghold since the destruction of the family boroughs in 1832. The ostensible reason is, however, the refusal of the Ministry to accompany or precede it by a measure redistributing the seats, or, as we should say, of reapportionment. The Conservative contention is that power should not, under the English Constitution, be handed over to mere numbers; that is, interests and classes should be fairly represented in the Government, and that this should be provided for by creating new constituencies, or distributing the representatives in such a way that the land, for instance, apart from population or personal property, should retain at least some of its old weight.

The probabilities are now that though Mr. Gladstone is unwilling to dissolve Parliament, he will be compelled to do so. The condition of the Egyptian question looks better for this purpose than it did two months ago. The public is tired of it, and does not look on Gordon's position as so romantic as it seemed at first. Moreover, "the red herring theory" has taken a strong hold of the working-class mind, meaning the belief that the Egyptian question is "a red herring drawn across the tail," to divert public attention from domestic reform, an ancient Tory trick which Blaine is trying to introduce into the United States, and the defeat of the bill by the Lords will confirm this impression. At the general election the constitution of the House of Lords will become one of the burning questions. There have been numerous signs of late that this was impending. In fact, there is some reason to believe that the majority of the Peers have been expecting it for some time. The active ones, who like to legislate, are quite prepared for any change which will give the House more weight with the country and raise the importance of the debates. The lazy, indolent ones, who constitute the bulk of the members, are, on the other hand, indifferent about the fate of a body which has lost its prestige, and attendance on which involves the loss of a good deal of amusement. In fact, the House now represents more than anything else, what is

called the "party of pleasure" in England—that is, the large body of the idle rich of both sexes, to whom yachting, hunting, pigeon-shooting, racing, deer stalking, lawn tennis, and coaching are the chief interests of life.

The triennial elections to the Hungarian Diet have been held, and the result is a new decisive victory of the Cabinet of Coloman Tisza, and of the Liberal party, which supports it. This result was, in fact, never doubtful, though the election contests were carried on in various parts of the country with a fury generally characteristic only of struggles the issue of which depends upon the vote of a few districts. In this instance the wild animosity which was productive of scandalous and even bloody outrages, was originally only on the side of the turbulent radical minority which calls itself the Extreme Left, or Independence party, and it was the fury of exasperated weakness. The anti-Semitic craze was another source of ungovernable irritation. The supporters of the Government candidates were, of course, not overscrupulous in their choice of means for repelling insult and violence. There have been elected: Liberals, 231; Independents, 73; members of the Moderate Opposition, 59; Anti-Semites, 17; Nationalists (Slavs, Rumanians, and Saxons), 16; no party men, 10. The Liberals will thus have a majority in the next Diet over all their opponents combined of about fifty, which almost exactly corresponds to the general result of the elections in the summer of 1881. The difference in regard to the Conservative Opposition, the Nationalists, and the no-party men is insignificant; the Independents alone have lost a number of seats, most of which have probably been won by Anti-Semites—that is, by candidates who exchanged the banner of anti-Austrian irreconcilables for that of Jew-baiters.

What deep thought or high political aim caused the Emperor William to resolve on the resuscitation of the Prussian Council of State seems still to be a kind of secret. The composition of the Council, however, as decreed by the royal rescripts of June 18, clearly shows that its character is to be intensely conservative. The seventy-one members of this Prussian Sanhedrim, of which the Crown Prince has been made the President, Prince Bismarck the Vice-President, and Von Möller the State Secretary, include about forty Government officials and officers, about a dozen noble landed proprietors, two Evangelical clergymen, and two Catholic prelates—the Bishops of Fulda and Ermeland—and almost all the rest are manufacturers, merchants, or local officials of known conservative sentiment. The leaders in the late ultra-loyal manifestations of the National Liberal party—Miquel, Bennigsen, and Becker—and with them Professor Gneist, have been appointed Councillors, but not a single member of the new German Liberal fusion party has been granted a seat. And thus, while the Burgomasters of Cologne and Frankfurt have been selected, the capital and the next largest city of the kingdom, Breslau, have been snubbed in the persons of their chief magistrates,

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

(WEDNESDAY, July 2, to TUESDAY, July 8, 1884, inclusive.)

DOMESTIC.

THE political feature of the week is the National Democratic Convention at Chicago. Delegates and other politicians began to arrive in that city on Friday and Saturday in great numbers. John Kelly, with 600 Tammany followers, was among the number. When General Butler arrived he was received with bands of music and much cheap display. No significant work was done until Monday. On that day the New York delegation went into executive session at the Palmer House, in order to decide how the delegation should vote in the Convention. Tammany held a preliminary meeting at which they decided to fight Cleveland to the last, both in the caucus and Convention. An informal ballot of the New York delegation resulted: Cleveland, 47; Flower, 22; scattering, 3. The formal ballot gave Cleveland 47. The other votes went to Slocum. In the evening the delegation voted in favor of Cleveland 49 to 23. In the afternoon the National Committee decided on Governor Hubbard, of Texas, for temporary Chairman of the Convention.

Kelly made an effort on Monday night and Tuesday morning to divert the Southern vote from Cleveland to Bayard. Senators Hampton, Lamar, Gordon, and Ransom worked for this end, but with no marked effect. A little before midnight of Monday a conference was held between Senator Barnum, Smith Weed, Mr. Manning, and others of the Cleveland leaders, at which the latest returns from the State delegations were canvassed, with results declared to be very satisfactory. Without Ohio and Pennsylvania they figured up 450 votes as the minimum of their strength on the first ballot.

In reply to a query whether he would accept the nomination under any circumstances, Mr. Tilden on Monday night telegraphed to Chairman Barnum: "Your inquiry was explicitly answered in the negative by my letter of June 10 to Mr. Manning."

At 11 o'clock on Tuesday morning, the visiting organizations formed in front of the Palmer House and paraded to the Convention hall. About half an hour later the first delegation entered the hall. At noon the vast building was crowded. The arrival of the California delegation occasioned the first outburst of applause in the body of the audience. The presence of distinguished leaders among the delegates did not appear to be observed by the crowd, and there was no applause to mark their arrival until the familiar features of Senator Thurman, of Ohio, were discerned, when a mighty cheer arose. At 12:40 P. M. (Chicago time) the Convention was called to order by ex-Senator Barnum, Chairman of the National Democratic Committee. Prayer was offered by the Rev. Dr. D. C. Marquis, of the Northwestern Theological Seminary. Richard D. Hubbard, of Texas, was unanimously elected temporary Chairman. In his speech he advised the party to nominate men whose names would be in themselves a platform, and urged united support for whoever was nominated. A resolution was presented that States cannot change their vote during the roll call. Mr. Grady (Tammany), of New York, presented an amendment that the chairman of a delegation shall, when a poll is called, give expression to individual votes. This was a movement to break the unit rule. Mr. Grady, Judge Cochran, of N. Y., and John Kelly spoke in its favor. Senator Jacobs, of N. Y., and Colonel Fellows spoke against it. After an exciting debate the motion was lost by 332 yeas to 463 noes. This was Tammany's first rebuff. The original motion was then passed, and the Convention soon after adjourned to meet at 11 o'clock on Wednesday morning. Col. W. F. Vilas, of Wisconsin, will be presented for permanent President. The friends of Cleveland feel confident of his nomination

on an early ballot. It will require two-thirds of the 802 votes in the Convention to nominate.

President Arthur on Wednesday vetoed the bill restoring Fitz-John Porter to the rank in the army of the United States held by him at the time of his dismissal by the sentence of the court-martial. In his veto message he said: "As Congress has no power under the Constitution to nominate and appoint an officer, and cannot lawfully impose on the President the duty of nominating and appointing to office any particular individual of its own selection, this bill, if it can fairly be construed as requiring the President to make the nomination and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, the appointment which it authorizes, is in manifest violation of the Constitution." If the bill is mere advice to the President it can serve no useful purpose in the statute book. He also objects to the bill as setting aside the deliberate sentence of a distinguished and properly constituted court-martial, and adds: "It seems to me that the proposed legislation would establish a dangerous precedent, calculated to imperil in no small measure the binding force and effect of the judgments of various tribunals established under our Constitution and laws." The message was based on an opinion prepared by Attorney-General Brewster. As soon as the message had been read in the House the bill was at once passed over the veto by a vote of 168 to 78. Sixteen Republicans aided the Democrats in passing it. In the Senate on Thursday morning a motion to pass the bill over the veto failed by a tie vote of 27 to 27. Three Republicans, Messrs. Cameron (Pa.), Hoar, and Sewell, voted in the affirmative. Opinions differ as to the political effect of the veto. Friends of Porter believe it will hurt the Republican ticket in New Jersey. His opponents say it will give the ticket greater strength among the Western soldiers.

The Senate on Wednesday finished the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill. Most of the amendments proposed by the Senate Committee were adopted, the most important of these being the striking out of the provision changing the compensation of United States marshals from fees to salaries. The Senate ultimately was compelled to recede from this amendment, the House refusing to yield.

On Thursday the Senate passed the House bill further restricting the importation of Chinese labor. There were only twelve negative votes. The House Fortifications Bill, with a number of amendments increasing the sum total, was passed on Thursday without debate.

The President on Friday sent a long list of nominations to the Senate, the most important of which are the following: John A. Kasson, to be Minister to Germany. Alphonso Taft, to be Minister to Russia. John M. Francis, to be Minister to Austria-Hungary. Lewis Richmond, of Rhode Island, to be Minister to Portugal. Samuel H. M. Byers, to be Consul-General at Rome, Italy. Ramon O. Williams, to be Consul-General at Havana. Ward McAllister, jr., of California, to be United States Judge for the District of Alaska. Frank Sperry, of New York, to be Associate Justice Supreme Court of Dakota. Seward Smith, of Iowa, to be Associate Justice Supreme Court of Dakota. George Turner, of Alabama, to be Associate Justice Supreme Court of Washington Territory. John Jarrett, of Pennsylvania, to be Commissioner of Labor. The Senate confirmed the first four on Saturday. Owing to objection to Mr. Sperry's youth, ex-Senator W. H. Francis, of New Jersey, was substituted for him.

On Friday evening the Senate postponed consideration of the Postal Telegraph Bill until December. On Saturday the same action was taken in regard to a bill establishing a commission to regulate inter-State commerce.

Senator Logan on Saturday, on a question of privilege in the Senate, made an elaborate denial, accompanied by documentary proofs, that he had accumulated 80,000 acres of land, and that he went to New Mexico and, under cover of his brother-in-law, tried to preempt the most valuable land lying along her streams, part of which was in the Zuni reservation. These are the charges made in an undelivered speech printed in the *Congressional Record* of June 27.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday agreed, by a vote of 150 to 91, to substitute the minority Fortification Bill (Mr. Ransom's) for the bill reported by the majority of the Committee on Appropriations. The bill was then passed. It appropriates \$595,000 as against about four millions recommended by the majority report. The Senate amendments to the River and Harbor Bill were non-concurred in. The report of a committee which investigated the charges of lobbying against William H. English was presented. It found no custom or usage which would justify the conclusion that he had abused the privileges of the House. A minority report found him guilty of lobbying and flagrant violation of the House privileges. The whole matter was laid upon the table.

The Conference Committee in charge of the Consular and Diplomatic Appropriations Bill concluded consideration of that measure on Friday. With the exception of the Senate amendment appropriating \$250,000 for the Nicaraguan waterway project, an agreement was reached. The House conferees refused to agree to that feature of the bill.

The River and Harbor Bill, as agreed upon by the Conference Committee and finally passed by both houses on Friday night, appropriates \$13,909,200.

Both the Senate and the House of Representatives remained in session until after 7 o'clock on Sunday morning, and then took a recess until 3 P. M. Early on Monday morning another recess was taken until 10 A. M. The Conference Committee on the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill agreed, the House conferees having yielded to the Senate amendment striking out Mr. Springer's proposition to pay United States marshals salaries instead of fees. The report was accepted. The Senate conferees on the Consular and Diplomatic Bill brought in a report in favor of giving up the amendment appropriating \$250,000 for the Nicaraguan Canal scheme. The Senate voted by a large majority to recede from the amendment. The conferees from the two houses despaired of reaching an agreement on the Naval Bill, and the only way out of the difficulty was to submit a bill providing temporarily for the support of the navy until December 31, 1884, by extending last year's appropriation. About \$2,000,000 is appropriated by the bill for continuing work on the three new steel cruisers and one despatch boat. No money is appropriated for continuing work on the double-turreted monitors. The House passed the bill, but the Senate amended it to continue work on the monitor *Monadnock*, which the House would not agree to.

At 10 o'clock on Monday morning both houses again met. In the Senate there was a warm political debate over a motion to recede from the Senate amendment in regard to the *Monadnock*, but it was finally agreed to. This removed the last point of disagreement between the two houses, and when it was announced to the House, that body speedily passed the original bill. The House then proceeded to work in earnest, taking up the private Pension Bills, which had passed the Senate, and passing them as fast as the clerk could read the titles. A resolution was passed by both houses for a final adjournment at 2 P. M., but at the request of the Senate the hour was afterward changed to 3 P. M. The Senate spent several hours in executive session. Congress adjourned at that hour with the usual short speeches by the presiding officers.

Attorney-General Brewster was examined on Thursday by the Springer Committee relative to the trial of the Star-route cases. He testified as to a number of quarrels among the Government counsel, and also that he several times reduced the bills of Mr. George Bliss, which he thought excessive. John A. Walsh was refused a hearing on Saturday by the Committee.

The Illinois Democrats on Wednesday nominated Carter Harrison, Mayor of Chicago, for Governor. The tariff plank in the platform is the same as that adopted by the National Democratic Convention of 1876 at St. Louis, when Tilden was nominated for President. Mr. Morrison heads the list of the delegates-at-large to the National Convention.

The celebration of July 4th throughout the country was uneventful. A soldiers' monument was unveiled at Buffalo. In this city the usual meeting was held in Tammany Hall, S. S. Cox, John Kelly, and others making speeches. The bronze copy of Houdon's statue of Washington, erected in Riverside Park by subscriptions of pupils in the public schools, was formally unveiled. The veterans of 1812 had their annual dinner. The New York Society of the Cincinnati held their annual meeting at Delmonico's.

The schedules of U. S. Grant, Ferdinand Ward, U. S. Grant, jr., and James D. Fish, comprising the firm of Grant & Ward, bankers and brokers, who recently made an assignment for the benefit of creditors, were filed on Monday in the Court of Common Pleas of this city. They show as follows: Liabilities, \$16,792,647 72; nominal assets, \$27,139,098 56; actual assets, \$67,174 30.

The inter-collegiate four-oared boat race was won at Saratoga on Monday by the University of Pennsylvania, Cornell second, only two feet behind, Princeton third, Columbia fourth. Bowdoin was out of the race through a mishap.

FOREIGN.

El Hazar, the authoritative Mohammedan university at Cairo, after a secret conclave, has pronounced in favor of El Mahdi's religious claims. El Hazar had hitherto denied El Mahdi's pretensions. This decision, it is believed, will have an important influence on the Senussi and other tribes.

It was rumored on Wednesday that 12,000 Arabs had attacked and captured Debbek. It is said that 3,000 of the garrison and inhabitants were killed. The Mudir of Dongola and a number of officers have gone in the direction of Debbek, with what object is not known.

It was reported in London on Friday that letters had been received in Cairo from Khartum stating that the place had been captured during the latter part of May; that there had been no massacre, as most of the Europeans had turned Mohammedans, and that General Gordon was allowed the freedom of the Mahdi's camp at Khartum. Later despatches do not confirm the report fully, although advices from Catholic missionaries favor its truth. Rumors are being circulated in Cairo that toward the end of the Feast of Ramadan there will be a rising in that city. Advices from Berber and Dongola are very conflicting and are mostly rumors. On Friday the Governor of Dongola telegraphed from Debbek that he had fought a great battle with the rebels, and killed 4,000 of their number, himself losing 2,000 men. The news was not believed. Later on the same day the Governor telegraphed asking for arms, ammunition, and horses.

The British gunboat *Condor* left Suakim for Akik on Sunday to shell the Arabs who are cutting off the water supply of the friendly tribes.

A despatch to the London *Times*, dated Saturday, from Dongola, said: "The Mudir of Dongola has achieved a brilliant victory over the rebels at Debbek. The enemy was routed with a loss of 2,000 killed. We now consider ourselves saved."

There were rumors in Suakim on Monday that General Gordon had been murdered by his soldiers at Khartum and that the Mahdi held the city.

The latest Sudan rumor is that the troops and population are evacuating Dongola.

The Egyptian Conference will meet again within a week. The financial assistants of the foreign delegates are meanwhile actively engaged in examining the English financial proposals, and the Ambassadors are conferring together.

The London *News* on Thursday said that M. Waddington, the French Ambassador to England, had been summoned to Paris in connection with obstacles said to be in the way of the Egyptian Conference. This may greatly delay a final agreement on the Egyptian question.

In the House of Lords, on Friday, the Deceased Wife's Sister Bill passed its first reading.

In the House of Lords on Tuesday evening Lord Cairns's amendment to the Franchise Bill postponing the extension of the franchise until a re-distribution scheme is concluded was adopted by a vote of 205 to 146.

The Pan-Presbyterian Council at Belfast, Ireland, concluded its work at a late hour on Thursday night. Principal Cairns, of Edinburgh, delivered the farewell address. The Council will meet in London in 1888. A Presbyterian reunion was held in Belfast on Friday, when a committee was appointed to effect a union of the Irish and Scotch Presbyterian Churches. President Arthur sent the following reply to a greeting from them: "Coming from a kindred ancestry, the kind greetings of Irish and Scotch assembled at Belfast to day are especially pleasing and are very cordially reciprocated."

It was reported on Wednesday that France would demand \$100,000,000 of China as indemnity for the violation of the Franco-Chinese treaty at Langson. The Shanghai correspondent of the London *Times* telegraphed on Thursday as follows: "A war is threatened between France and China. An influential party in China are instigating it. Prominent officials, are resolved to repudiate the recent Franco-Chinese negotiations."

Li Fong Pao, the Chinese Minister in France, had a conference with Prime Minister Ferry on Saturday. He disavowed any hostile intention on the part of China in the affair at Langson. That affair, he declared, was entirely without Li Hung Chang's knowledge.

At a recent interview Prime Minister Ferry told Li Fong Pao, the Chinese Minister to France, that he held China directly responsible for the Langson affair, and that measures would be taken to obtain prompt redress. Prime Minister Ferry telegraphed on Monday to the French Minister at Peking, instructing him to demand from China a war indemnity of 250,000,000 francs. He has also telegraphed to Admiral Courbet ordering him to seize the Fou-Tcheou-Fou arsenal as a guarantee for payment of the indemnity.

Advices from Toulon stated that five cases of cholera had been cured there by inhaling pure oxygen. The effect of this is immediate, and consists in restoring warmth to the system and making the pulse normal. Its extended use has not proved very satisfactory. There were rumors on Wednesday of three cholera cases in Paris, but they were not confirmed. Six thousand people have fled from Marseilles. It was believed on Saturday that the cholera had reached its maximum of intensity, but that it will linger until September. Doctor Koch, the German expert, has arrived at Toulon.

There were ten deaths from cholera at Toulon on Monday evening and fourteen at Marseilles. The panic is increasing. The migration from Paris to the seaside is unexampled.

Dr. Koch, on Monday, reported that the cholera in Toulon is Asiatic from the extreme

East. He found the same microbes there as were found in Egypt and India. He says: "The cholera will reach Germany. It will go everywhere. Having a centre like Toulon it must spread."

It is currently reported that a meeting will soon take place at Danzig between the Emperor William of Germany and the Czar of Russia.

The American colony in Berlin celebrated the Fourth of July with a banquet and ball. In Paris the formal presentation of the Bartholdi statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World" by the French Government to the United States took place in the Gauthier workshop. Mr. L. P. Morton, United States Minister to France, received the statue in the name of his Government. Count de Lesseps made a speech full of friendly sentiments toward America.

The Spanish Commissioners have prepared their report on the condition of Cuba, and will soon return to Spain. The report is signed by only three of the five. The plan proposed to relieve Spain from insurrection and bankruptcy in Cuba is that Germany be asked to consent to take the administration of Cuba for twenty-five years, the island remaining nominally Spanish, and that country receiving annually 100,000,000 marks. At the end of the twenty-five years the Spanish people, having lost interest in Cuba, would, it is argued, willingly cede it to the United States for a good round sum. The two other Commissioners will make a minority report. The Spanish Minister at Washington pronounces this story absurd and false.

As a result of the conference held by the Cáceres and Iglesias Commissioners, General Iglesias has resigned the Presidency of Peru, and convoked a general election for President and Vice-President of the Republic, also for Senators and Deputies of the new Congress. General Iglesias has withdrawn his forces from the Provinces and concentrated them at Lima. The Chilians have begun their final evacuation of Peruvian territory. Cáceres remains in possession of the central provinces.

Doctor Cervera, President of the State of Panama, has been impeached by the Superior Court for bribery. The Court named General Ruiz, Second Vice-President, for President. Cervera refused to vacate the office, and was surrounded by 150 armed friends and police. There were some fears of a revolution. Cervera is very unpopular. The Attorney General on Sunday declared the impeachment null and void, and Cervera was officially gazetted President. The public was not satisfied, and disturbances occurred. The troops in the garrison were under arms all night. On Monday General Ibanez, commander of the garrison, assumed power. Later in the day Doctor Jovan was sworn in as President. Dr. Cervera on Tuesday was conditionally allowed to retain office.

General Francis Edward Todleben, the famous Russian engineer, is dead. He was born in 1818, and was educated at the School of Engineering, at St. Petersburg. In 1853 and 1854 he served with distinction in the campaign on the Danube, and at the outbreak of the Crimean war in the latter year he was ordered to Sebastopol. To his genius in developing the inchoate works at Sebastopol, and in improvising defensive expedients adapted to the peculiar circumstances, is attributed the long successful defence by which the place resisted for 349 days the efforts of the allied armies. As a reward for his services at Sebastopol the young engineer was rapidly promoted from the rank of Colonel to Major-General, and was made General Adjutant to the Emperor of Russia. In 1869 he attained the rank of General. In 1877 he was the director of the operations against Osman Pasha before Plevna. He was the author of an important work on the defence of Sebastopol.

THE CHICAGO CONVENTION.

THE Chicago Convention assembled at noon on Tuesday, and the indications at this writing are that Governor Cleveland will receive its nomination for the Presidency. His strength increases every hour, according to all accounts, and the agreement of the New York delegation by a nearly unanimous vote to present his name is likely to secure his nomination very early in the balloting. There is no other candidate who has any following worth mentioning, except Bayard, and he is practically barred out of the Convention now, as he was in 1876 and in 1880, by the almost unanimous belief of the delegates that his nomination would be unwise because of his Southern citizenship and sympathies. With Bayard out of the way, no other rival candidate seems to have strength enough to give his friends even a hope of success.

The situation is very similar to that in St. Louis in 1876 when Mr. Tilden was nominated. Then as now the demand for one candidate was so strong that all other candidates were left with only a handful of supporters. As we have previously pointed out, the opposition to Tilden in his own party was much more formidable than the present opposition to Cleveland, and was based on precisely the same ground—inability to carry New York. In spite of it Tilden was nominated and did carry New York. He entered the Convention with about the same following which Cleveland is believed to have now. The whole number of delegates was then 738, and 492 were necessary for a nomination. Six candidates were voted for on the first ballot. Tilden received 417 votes, Hendricks 140, Hancock 75, William Allen 56, Bayard 33, and Joel Parker 18. Tilden was nominated on the second ballot, but not until changes were made in the vote as first cast. When the roll for the second ballot was ended he lacked 25 votes of the necessary two-thirds, but before the result was announced Iowa changed her vote, adding four to his column. Illinois imitated her by adding two. This started a stampede, and when the vote was finally announced his total was 535. But the other candidates were not deserted. Hendricks had 60; Hancock 59; Allen 54; Bayard 11; Parker 18; Thurman 7. The nomination was made unanimous, but it was by no means secured without hard work.

In 1880 there were nine candidates who received votes on the first ballot. No one of them had a commanding lead. Hancock had the largest number, 171, but that was less than a quarter of the whole Convention, and 321 less than two-thirds. The other candidates were supported as follows: Bayard, 153½; Payne, 81; Thurman, 65½; Field, 65; Morrison, 62; Hendricks, 50½; Tilden, 38; Seymour, 8; scattering, 31. On that ballot New York cast 70 votes for Payne. When the result was announced an adjournment was made till the next day. When the Convention reassembled, a statement was made from the platform that the New York delegation had dropped Mr. Payne and would cast its solid vote for Mr. Randall. It was hoped that this would secure his nomination, but the division of the Pennsylvania delegation between its two favorite sons, Hancock 32 and

Randall 25, made such a result impossible, even if Randall had had a much larger following than he did. The second ballot resulted in much the same way as that of 1876. At first there was no nomination. Hancock had 319, Randall 129½, Bayard 113, Field 65½, Thurman 50, Hendricks 31, English 19, Tilden 6, scattering 3. Before the result was announced, Wisconsin changed her 20 votes to Hancock, New Jersey followed suit, and when Pennsylvania cast hers solid for him the stampede was started, and when the count was finally completed Hancock had 705 votes—nearly the whole Convention—Hendricks holding 30, Bayard 2, and Tilden 1. Hancock was nominated much more nearly by acclamation than Tilden was, and his selection was greeted with much greater unanimity and enthusiasm by his party. There was no split anywhere, and Tammany formally pledged its support. Yet Tilden carried New York by over 32,000 majority and Hancock lost it by 21,000 votes.

The platform of the Convention of 1876 was a very long and elaborate document, and contained many declarations which are of interest now. Reform was its permeating sentiment, and a great deal of space was devoted to specifying ways by which it could be brought about. The tariff was denounced as a "masterpiece of injustice, inequality, and false pretence," yielding a "dwindling, not a yearly rising revenue," and impoverishing many industries to subsidize a few. A demand was made that "all custom-house taxation shall be only for revenue." Reform was called for "to correct the errors of treaties and diplomacy which have stripped our fellow-citizens of foreign birth and kindred race, recrossing the Atlantic, of the shield of American citizenship and have exposed our brethren of the Pacific coast to the incursions of a race not sprung from the same great parent stock." This seems to have been the origin of that "American policy" which is now the great issue of the Blaine campaign. There was a direct allusion to Blaine's public services in the same platform, when toward the close a stirring appeal for a change of governing parties was opened with the remark that the "annals of this Republic show a late Speaker of the House of Representatives marketing his rulings as a presiding officer." That would be a forcible plank for this year's platform.

MR. BREWSTER'S TESTIMONY.

THE testimony of Mr. Brewster, the Attorney-General, before the House Committee, touching the conduct of the Star-route trials, is another most interesting chapter in the history of this extraordinary case. The principal figure in Mr. Brewster's narrative is, as might have been expected, again Colonel George Bliss, one of the counsel for the prosecution, who was brought on from New York at enormous expense—something like \$50,000 in all. Mr. Brewster says that Bliss's bargain for \$100 or \$150 a day—we forget now which it was—was not exorbitant if the trial had only lasted as long as it was expected to last in the beginning. But it lasted two or three times as long, and all attempts to get Bliss to

make a reduction in his fees in consideration of this fact were useless. On many other matters he displayed a spirit of concession, but on this he was firm as adamant. Had he resisted the attempts of Monsignor Capel to convert him to the Catholic Church with half the energy with which he resisted the Attorney-General's attempts to get him to cut down his charges, we feel sure he would be still at this hour one of the brightest ornaments of Protestantism.

But all this is an old story. What was really new in Mr. Brewster's testimony was a letter he received from Mr. Bliss, advising him to "consult Secretary Chandler on the political view of it"—i. e., as to the using of Price as a witness. Walsh, who was a distrusted Government witness, had made the charge that a "member of the Cabinet had a conference with Mr. Bliss." This Mr. Bliss stoutly denied. Secretary Chandler, although no name was given, also volunteered a stout denial of it, and Mr. Brewster cautioned him about allowing Walsh, whom he characterized as "a shameless kind of person," to become acquainted with the correspondence. Nevertheless, Mr. Brewster subsequently got a letter from Walsh "showing knowledge of the letters to Secretary Chandler and from Mr. Bliss." Of course the only construction which one can put on this is that both Bliss and Chandler were really in communication with Walsh, and it appeared plainly enough from Bliss's letter to Mr. Brewster that he, for some reason or other, did not want to have Price examined. The inference is, therefore, very strong that when he advised consulting with Secretary Chandler he knew what kind of advice the Secretary was likely to give. No wonder that Mr. Brewster "was not pleased" with the letter and made no reply to it. To have consulted with anybody as to the political bearings of any step in the prosecution, with the view of allowing his official action to be influenced thereby, would have been a violation of his sworn duty as a prosecuting officer, and it would probably have been difficult to find in the United States a person whom it would have been less proper to consult for any such purpose than Secretary Chandler. It must be added that, for reasons very similar, as now appears plainly enough—every day more plainly—the employment of Bliss in any case which had political bearings, or in which politicians were likely to take an interest, was also very ill-advised. He and Chandler are very striking and instructive products of that system of party warfare known as the spoils system. The system cannot work long, even in the freest and most publicly conducted government, without producing the class of politicians to which they both belong, to whom the party is not only far more than the Government, but something which it is well to allow knaves to serve at the public expense.

There has been no more striking and scandalous failure of justice in our day than the break-down of the prosecution in the Star-route cases. The further we get away from it, the worse and the more extraordinary it will look. The fact that high officers of the Government should have been found engaged

in a conspiracy with outside rogues to swindle the Treasury is bad enough, but it is not an unprecedented thing. The inability of the Government to bring them to justice in its own capital, or to find competent lawyers who could be trusted to prosecute them in dead earnest is, we believe, without example. Bliss, who was brought on from New York to bear the brunt of the work, is able, acute, and industrious, but he is so saturated with what he calls "politics" that it was useless to expect him to push through a six months' trial, no matter how highly paid he was, without engaging in an occasional bit of political intrigue, and having an occasional spree in some kind of secret crookedness. He never passed six months before without this sort of diversion, and probably never concluded a prosecution which had any political bearing whatever, without seeing what he could get out of it for the party or himself as an active party manager. He is really not to blame for the whole affair; it is the "system," as people say now, which is at fault. The "system" produced him, and to prevent the multiplication of his kind it is the system which must be reformed.

THE VETO OF THE PORTER BILL.

THE President's veto of the bill restoring Fitz John Porter to the army, as well as the opinion of the Attorney-General, on which it is based, carefully avoids going into the merits of the case. The terms of the bill are as follows: "That the President be and is hereby authorized to nominate and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate to appoint Fitz-John Porter, late a Major-General United States Volunteers, and Brevet-Brigadier General and Colonel in the army, to the position of Colonel in the army of the United States, of the same grade held by him at the time of his dismissal from the army by sentence of court-martial, promulgated January 27, 1863," etc.

The President's first objection to this is that it creates a new office to be filled only by the appointment of a particular person designated in the act. This, he maintains, is either "unnecessary or ineffective," or else it involves "an encroachment by the legislative branch of the Government on the authority of the Executive." "As Congress has no power under the Constitution to nominate and appoint an officer, and cannot lawfully impose on the President the duty of nominating and appointing to office any particular individual of its own selection, this bill, if it can fairly be construed as requiring the President to make the nomination, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate the appointment which it authorizes, is in manifest violation of the Constitution. If such be not a just interpretation, it must be regarded as a mere enactment of advice and counsel, which lacks in the very nature of things the force of positive law, and can serve no useful purpose out he statute books."

Neither the President nor the Attorney-General points out the precise clause of the Constitution which the act violates; and the argument as to the violation of the Con-

stitution appears to us to be somewhat sophistical. The act of itself accomplishes nothing; it merely *authorizes* the President, if he sees fit, to send in a particular name to the Senate for a particular purpose, and gives the Senate power, if it sees fit, to refuse the appointment. The bill does not bind him in any way. Had he signed it and new and important evidence against General Porter been brought subsequently to his knowledge, would he not have been obliged to refuse to act under it? Acts directing an executive officer to perform a duty almost invariably use some mandatory words like "shall" or "is directed to," and the object of Congress in simply giving the President authority in the premises was probably to obviate the very objections he now raises.

His next reason is that the judgment of the court-martial which cashiered Porter was, like any final judgment of a court, conclusive. There is no doubt about this, and nobody has ever questioned it. But, he adds, "It follows, accordingly, that when a lawfully constituted court-martial has duly declared its findings and its sentence, and the same have been duly approved, neither the President nor the Congress has any power to set them aside." This is going, to say the least, very far. If a sentence of a court-martial is absolutely irreversible, it would have to be carried out, even if it involved the execution of a perfectly innocent man, no matter what evidence might come to the knowledge of the Government. Finally,

"a conclusion at variance with these findings has been reached after investigation by a board consisting of three officers of the army. This board was not created in pursuance of any statutory authority, and was powerless to compel the attendance of witnesses or to pronounce a judgment which could be lawfully enforced. The officers who composed it, in their report to the Secretary of War, dated March 19, 1879, state that in their opinion, 'justice requires . . . such action as may be necessary to annul and set aside the findings and sentence of the court-martial in the case of Major-Gen. Fitz-John Porter, and to restore him to the positions of which their sentence deprived him; such restoration to take effect from the date of his dismissal from the service.' The provisions of the bill now under consideration are avowedly based on the assumption that the findings of the court-martial have been discovered to be erroneous. But it will be borne in mind that the investigation which is claimed to have resulted in this discovery was made many years after the event to which these findings related, and under circumstances that made it impossible to reproduce the evidence on which they were based. It seems to me that the proposed legislation would establish a dangerous precedent, calculated to imperil in no small measure the binding force and effect of the judgments of various tribunals established under our Constitution and laws."

It is very true that as a general rule it would be dangerous to reopen inquiries of this sort; but the argument arising from the length of time applies to one side as well as the other. If it is extremely difficult after this lapse of time to reproduce the evidence for the Government, it is equally difficult for General Porter to reproduce his evidence; and this seems to be no argument for perpetuating an alleged injustice. The main question is whether, tak-

ing this and all other difficulties into consideration, it is apparent that an injustice has been done. This was the question before the Board of Inquiry, and they answered it in the affirmative. Under these circumstances was not the President bound to take it as proved that the conclusions of the Board were right?

But curiously enough, the President in his concluding paragraph takes all the force out of what he says on the subject of the Advisory Board, by reminding Congress that he has already pardoned General Porter:

"I have already, in the exercise of the pardoning power with which the President is vested, remitted the continuing penalty that made it impossible for Fitz John Porter to hold an office of trust or profit under the Government of the United States. But I am unwilling to give my sanction to any legislation which shall practically annul and set at naught the solemn and deliberate conclusions of the tribunal by which he was convicted, and of the President by whom its findings were examined and approved."

The distinction between giving sanction to "legislation" which shall set at naught these solemn and deliberate conclusions, and setting at naught one of the most solemn of them all—the determination of the penalty—by the exercise of the pardoning power, seems very slight. If the conclusions of the court-martial were sound, General Porter was not excessively punished. He was court-martialled for betraying an army on the eve of battle. The only reason for pardoning him was the findings of the Advisory Board that he never did anything of this kind, and it is these very findings that the President now slights.

THE POOR EGYPTIANS.

WHAT the Conference over Egyptian affairs, which is to resume its sittings in a few days, and is now the most prominent topic of European politics, has really to consider is whether the interest on the Egyptian debt is to be reduced or not. This is all the French care about, and they make no secret of it. If the incomes of the French creditors are not reduced, they do not much mind how long the British occupation lasts or what character it takes on. The plan of a joint occupation they acknowledge to be no longer possible. England has got Egypt and may keep it, but only on condition that she shall make the Egyptians pay up.

Can the Egyptians pay up? The French financiers, led by M. Leroy-Beaulieu, insist with much angry vehemence that they can, and must. The debt charges amount in all to about \$22,000,000 annually, of which a portion only, say \$15,000,000, is raised by taxation. The rest comes from territorial domains formerly the private property of the Khedive, but now the property of the state, and from the receipts of state railroads. Under "the Joint Control," composed of English and French financiers, this sum was not only raised, but there was a handsome surplus, and the Englishmen who examined the Egyptian resources, and who included such men as Rivers Wilson and Goschen, reported that they were amply sufficient to meet all the burdens imposed on the people. But it was raised by a rigidity in tax collecting and a liberality in the use of the cowhide on the taxpayer, and

by a sternness of control over the native officials, which finally resulted in Arabi Pasha's rebellion and the bombardment of Alexandria. The truth is that the real limit of national resources, in the matter of tax-paying, as we all know, is not to be found by footing up the products of the soil and the number of the people, but by finding out how much the people are willing to pay under such methods of compulsion as they are used to. The paying capacity of all civilized countries is measured by their creditors in this way. When the United States or any State of the Union owes money, the value of the debt is got at not by an examination of the natural wealth of the country, but by finding out what portion of their substance the people are likely to be willing to surrender to their accustomed tax gatherers for the purpose of paying interest on loans. The value of the Egyptian debt has, however, been computed on the theory that the state of mind of the taxpayer was not an element which needed to be taken into account at all, and that taxes could be levied on the basis of the gross product of the soil.

After the defeat of Arabi the English took all but full control of the finances, and have been gradually ousting the native officials from the higher places, and putting Englishmen in their places. They have, too, been honestly trying to improve the administration and to put a stop to cruel and unusual modes of extorting taxes from the peasantry. They have consequently greatly reduced the powers of the local mudirs or governors, of the village sheikhs, and of the police. They have prohibited the use of the *kurbash* or cowhide on the delinquent taxpayer's person, and have in short been trying to civilize the Egyptian financial administration from top to bottom. The result is, it is now announced that the Egyptian finances are greatly embarrassed. The money does not come in as of old. The provinces are overrun by brigands, and the peasantry are waiting for the Mahdi. In fact, under the new English system Egypt cannot meet her liabilities. The English administrators are consequently disposed to ask for a further reduction in the interest on the debt, and as the bondholders are largely Frenchmen, the suggestion is met in Paris with the greatest bitterness. Frenchmen hold, it is estimated, about \$160,000,000 of the Egyptian debt, and as they ask no favor from their own creditors, are not disposed to accord any to the Egyptians, and are apparently quite ready, if necessary, to restore the old régime and collect the arrears by copious applications of a stout whip to the prostrate taxpayer's back. They do not put it exactly in this way, of course. They propose that England shall relinquish the \$1,000,000 a year she receives as interest on the money Disraeli put some years ago into the Khedive's Suez Canal shares, and that England and France jointly shall guarantee a handsome loan at 3½ per cent., with which the existing floating debt could be paid off, and also what is called "the privileged debt," which comprises about half the whole, and is so called because the interest of 5 per cent. is secured on pledges of specified portions of the revenue. In this way a considerable re-

duction in the debt charge would be made, and the most pressing obligations got rid of altogether, and the French bondholders would have their bonds all but guaranteed by one of the best securities in the world. What the Egyptians think about all this, nobody knows.

GEORGE SAND'S CORRESPONDENCE.

PARIS, June 19.

THE fifth volume of the correspondence of Mme. George Sand, which has just appeared, begins in the year 1864. We find her at that date at Nohant, ill, but working nevertheless as usual, very busy with her children and grandchildren, very much occupied with the peasants of her neighborhood, and paying their doctor's and apothecary's bills when one of them is sick. "The peasant here," she writes to Rodrigues, a Saint-Simonian friend, "is not in the lowest misery: he has a house, a little field, and his day's wages; but if he falls ill he is lost. . . . There is not the slightest industry in our country districts. The communal funds pay for the remedies and the doctors only when the paupers are in question, and they are not numerous. But the peasants who are comfortable, as we say, are always on the edge of poverty if I don't interfere; and some respectable peasants never ask for any help, and only receive it in secret. Our provincial bourgeois are not bad people: they render services, sometimes they give their time; but to loose the purse-strings is a very hard thing in our Berry, and when one has given ten sous he takes a long breath. The provinces of our central France are truly abandoned: it is the country of sleep and of death." Mme. Sand was very generous; she did not know how to keep money. She says to Rodrigues in 1864 that she has made about 500,000 francs by her industry, and that it has all been given away to her children and to the poor.

There is much talk presently about the relations of Prince Napoleon and his son Victor. Here is an account of Mme. Sand's first interview with this young Prince. She writes to her son Maurice (in 1864): "I went to see Prince Napoleon yesterday morning, and asked to see his son. The child arrived, with a lady in a little Scotch woollen gown. I had hardly given a look at her, when I saw that it was the Princess Clotilde in person who had herself brought me the child very amiably. He is very handsome, with a timid and melancholy air. He has more of his mother than of his father. He is very nice, and as obedient as a girl." She was then in Paris, for the representation of her piece "Mademoiselle La Quintinie" at the Odéon. The Emperor and the Empress, Princess Mathilde, Prince Napoleon, were at the first representation: "all Paris" was there. The Quartier Latin was much excited, and after the representation the students escorted Mme. Sand, screaming, "Vive George Sand! down with the Clericals!" The play was directed against clericalism and the Jesuits. It made much noise then, but is now completely forgotten; political allusions made all its success, and this sort of success is ephemeral. Mme. Sand paid some debts with the proceeds of the piece. She left Nohant, where her style of life was too expensive, and established herself very modestly at Palaiseau, a village in Seine-et-Oise, near Paris. Her son Maurice lost a young child; it was a great blow to her: "That child was all my dream, all my fortune. . . . I cry in walking, in sleeping, in working." Her kindness to her son Maurice is truly touching: she had given him Nohant and wished him to reside there, while she lived more than modestly at Palaiseau, working from morn-

ing to night. I find a few lines on the "woman's question" in one of her letters written at Palaiseau. "I think as you do," she says to M. de Pompéry, "on the part which reason and nature impose on woman. The women who pretend that they would have time to be deputies and to educate their children have not educated them themselves: otherwise, they would know that it is impossible. Many excellent women, good mothers besides, are obliged, for the sake of their work, to confide their little ones to strangers; but this is a vice of a social state which at every moment misapprehends and contradicts nature. A woman may well, at a given time, by a sort of inspiration, fill a social and political part; but she cannot permanently accept a function which deprives her of her natural mission, which is domestic love. People have often said that I am backward in my ideal of progress, and it is quite true that in the matter of progress imagination can admit everything; but will the heart ever change? I do not think so. I see woman forever the slave of her own heart. I have often written this, and I persist in thinking it."

Mme. Sand had become if not reconciled at least resigned to the Imperial system; she felt almost enthusiasm for Prince Napoleon, and for his ideas; she had no antipathy toward the Emperor; and when Napoleon III. published his "Life of Cæsar," she reviewed the book in a provincial paper; in a letter she said: "The book will have no success. It shows a cold, concise talent, without any real depth, and, in a literary sense, it can only interest those of the craft; still all are not like myself, who am a little pantheistic in art, and who like all possible styles, the exuberant ones and those which are not exuberant at all. . . . As for the great public, it cares not for error or truth, it wants to be astonished and amused. It will find nothing spicy enough in the Imperial book; it will not buy it." The prophecy was just; many copies were distributed by the Emperor himself; and I believe that the remaining copies are still at the publishers'. "Fortunately," said Mme. Sand, "the publishers had nothing to pay to the author; they would have made a very bad bargain."

Mme. Sand had a great friendship for Flaubert. I have spoken lately of the letters addressed to her by the author of "Madame Bovary"; we have now the answers, and it must be said that many of them are charming. They both were much enamored with country scenes, and in pictures of nature Mme. Sand was truly inimitable. On her return from Croisset, the country place of Flaubert, near Rouen, Mme. Sand writes to him from Palaiseau:

"Here I am all alone in my little house; meadows, woods, apple trees are to be found here as in Normandy; no great river, with its shrieking steam whistles and its infernal towing chain; a little rivulet which goes silently under the willows; a stillness—ah, but it seems as if one were in the depths of a virgin forest; nothing speaks except the little fount which jets incessant diamonds in the moonlight. The flies which were asleep in the corners of my room wake up, warmed by my fire. They come near my lamp, they are seized with a mad gayety, they buzz, they jump, they laugh; but the hour of death has come, and, in the midst of the dance, they fall stone-dead. It is over—good-by to the ballet."

Her advice to Flaubert is always good; she comforts him, she cheers him up, she is full of a vigorous and healthy sympathy. Alexandre Dumas also asks her often for advice, and she speaks to him as she would to a son. It is curious, is it not, to see a woman becoming a sort of literary director of two men, and men of great merit? It is evident that she had more affection for Flaubert; she treats him as she would a great child. "At a distance," she writes, "I can tell you how much I love you without fear de ra-

bâcher. You are one of the few who have remained impressionable, sincere, in love with art, not corrupted by ambition, not blinded by success. One day she writes to him: "Sainte-Beuve, though he loves you, maintains that you are horribly vicious. Perhaps he sees you with dirty eyes, like a certain botanist who says that a certain flower is of a dirty yellow. The observation shocked me so much that I wrote on the margin of his book: 'It is you who have dirty eyes.'"

Flaubert was always repeating the famous "Odi profanum vulgus" of Horace. He affected to despise popularity. Mme. Sand told him on this subject: "I have heard you say, 'I only write for ten or twelve people.' We say in conversation many things which are the result of a momentary impression; but you were not the only one who said this: it was the opinion of the Monday [this is an allusion to the Monday dinners of Flaubert, Sainte-Beuve, Taine, etc.]. I protested inwardly. The twelve persons for whom you claim to write are as good as you, or better than you. No, you ought to write for all the world, for all the uninitiated. If you are not understood, you must resign yourself and go to work again; if you are understood, you must rejoice and continue. In that is all the secret of our persevering work, and of our love of art. What is art without hearts and minds that can receive it? a sun which would send forth no rays, and would give life to nothing." These few lines, written, as we see, *au courant de la plume*, seem to me a masterpiece of criticism. The writer or the artist who pretends to work for a dozen people only makes a confession of weakness and of vanity.

In 1867 there were some constitutional changes in France, and the Empire tried or pretended to make itself more liberal. Mme. Sand was no more what she had once been. She wrote to Alexandre Dumas: "What do you think of this crowning of the Napoleonic edifice? It seems to me to be a vain attempt. People know so little how to use liberty in France, that they will hasten to make an ill use of the little liberty which is given to us; then we shall be told, 'You see, it is your fault.' . . . It is perhaps too late; you cannot make citizens with a stroke of the pen, after you have so well corrupted them during fifteen years." These were almost prophetic words; the Empire could not, if it had really wished, change itself into a constitutional and liberal régime.

Though she always worked hard, Mme. Sand was always poor. "So you have money difficulties," she says to Flaubert. "I don't know what it is, since I have nothing more in the world. [She had disposed of all her land for her children.] I live from day to day, like a workman; when I shall no more be able to do my day's work, I shall be shipped to the other world, and then I shall need nothing more." She really felt the want of money only when she was seized with a desire to make a journey, and could not do it. She had returned to Nohant, but she was now staying with her son. She felt always happier in the country than in Paris: "I am a peasant, physically and morally. Born in the country, I never could change, and when I was younger the literary world became impossible to me. I felt in it as on a sea; I lost all personality, and had an immense desire to find myself alone or among primitive people. Our peasants at that time were not very different from savages; now they are more civilized, and I am less savage. Never mind. I have still much pleasure in seeing people without *esprit*, who can be understood without effort and heard without astonishment." She became more and more foreign to the affairs of the political world. "All revolutions," said she, "are brutal and irrational. I don't

know what has become of the republican ideas. I have lost the thread of this labyrinth of dreams, for many years. My ideal will always be 'liberty, equality, fraternity.' But when, how, by whom will it be somewhat realized? I don't know. What I know is that one hears coming out from everything—from the earth and from the trees, from the houses and from the clouds—the cry, 'Enough of this!'"

This was written in 1868, two years before the war of 1870, two years before the fall of the Empire. This fifth volume brings us to the very eve of a most momentous revolution. It is full of fine pages; the next one will be even more interesting. Mme. Sand saw the clouds gathering, but nobody could say when and where the storm would break.

GERMANY REVISITED.

BERLIN, JUNE, 1884.

I HAVE often tried to account for the charm which Germany possesses for English-speaking travellers, but can discover no better explanation than the presence of that all-pervading quality which the natives call *Gemüthlichkeit*, and which should not be disparaged because they attach to it a disproportionate importance. I have heard it maintained that the filth and beggars which are an inevitable part of the foreground of an Italian landscape are essential to its picturesqueness; it may be so, but I am inclined to regard this as a matter of taste, since I, at least, prefer landscapes in which these features are absent. In France, however, we find the same neatness, thrift, and honesty; the French cities are at least equally interesting with the German; French men and women are brighter and have better manners, and there are parts of France fully as beautiful as any parts of Germany. It is true, facilities for travel are much less frequently found, but this is an effect rather than a cause, since railways and good inns follow, rather than lead, the pioneers of travel. *Gemüthlichkeit* is untranslatable, but the idea may, perhaps, be conveyed by saying that the stranger feels more at home in Germany than elsewhere, and this in spite of the many and serious defects of German social life, which, in my opinion, are not exaggerated in such books as 'German Home Life' and 'Saxon Studies.' German literature, again, is far more local in its character than is French, or, for that matter, English; and is more or less familiar to us (though often filtered into very prosy English) from our youth.

When steamboats were first introduced upon the Rhine, a British traveller complained that the country, already over-travelled, was now sure to be rendered unendurable to the persons "of taste and cultivation." But though the steamers have increased a hundred fold in number and in size, while passenger-trains rumble by hourly on either side, though Byron's castled crags are all tunnelled, and Paul Fleming would be far less at home when he stopped for the night than was Rip van Winkle on his return, the river is as beautiful as ever, though I fear the appreciation of it is hardly as great as in old days, since the vast majority are content with the very imperfect views obtained from the deck of the steamer or from the saloon-cars of the railways. The villages are not materially changed from the time when Birket Foster drew the illustrations to 'Hyperion,' but the red-tiled roofs are rapidly yielding to the soberer slates, and the restored castles are not, perhaps, quite so picturesque as were the ruins. To my mind, the side valleys of the Rhine, such as the Mosel and the Lahn, are more attractive than the main river. Not that anything can "spoil" the Rhine, but it sometimes presents the appear-

ance of a fine animal caged and exhibited at so much a head. In Switzerland, everything is on so grand a scale that the inclined railway on the Rigi, for instance, is overlooked; but a similar triumph of engineering is painfully conspicuous on the Dracheufels, and I found the rails being laid for another to the fine Germania monument on the Niederwald. The ruins, too, are generally more interesting—the French having been less careful, in 1689 and 1793, to destroy everything thoroughly—and the heavily wooded, closely enveloping heights, especially of the Lahn, through which I have just come, being more beautiful than the vine-clad banks of the greater river. I may here remark, in passing, that those who wish to see the castle of Heidelberg in the character which it has borne for two hundred years, of the most extensive and picturesque ruin in Europe, would better hurry, as on this visit I found the Renaissance wing covered with scaffolding to accommodate the architects who are figuring the cost of a restoration.

I passed a week at Ems, which, I believe, is medicinally the most important of German baths, but which, though only half an hour distant from the Rhine, is little visited by Americans. It is none the less a charming spot, with excellent hotels and very reasonable charges. Its immediate surroundings are prettier than those of Baden, and the many historically interesting and exceedingly picturesque old towns of the Lahn Valley, such as Nassau and Limburg, are within easy reach. Till 1872 there were gaming-tables at Baden, and the really fine structure called the Kursaal is a reminder of that wicked period. Contrary to expectation, Baden is a more popular resort than it was in the heyday of gambling; but the play was there a far more important feature in the life of the place than it was at Ems, and the scent of the roses is still very perceptible in the garish and gaudy decorations of the Kursaal, offensive originally from their loudness, and now additionally ugly from their shabbiness. I think the beauty of Baden has been, relatively at least, overrated. It is pretty, and the drives and walks in the neighborhood are charming; yet it is equalled, if not excelled, in these respects by a dozen other places in the Schwarzwald, while it has the (to me) considerable disadvantage of being itself a large town, while at Ems the visitor sees nothing but a river, lined on either side with hotels and handsome villas, relieved by the high, forest-covered hills usual in German scenery. Yet Ems, no more than Baden, is a typical German "Sommerfrische." I have had considerable experience of these resorts, all the way from famous places like those just mentioned to (outside of Germany) absolutely unknown spots in Thüringen and Schlesien. The most perfect specimen I have found is Badenweiler, a little cluster of hotels and villas just off the railway midway between Freiburg and Basel. It is on high ground, just on the edge of the Black Forest, and the windows of all the houses look across the wide and fertile valley of the upper Rhine to "the blue Alsatian mountains" familiar in popular German poetry. Yet the situation, though good, is not exceptionally so; the attraction is largely due to the skill with which the natural advantages are turned to the best account. To begin with, there are the usual constituents of a German watering place—hills, forest, a ruined castle, a mineral spring ("with Roman remains"), a Kursaal, and an orchestra. The last named may be termed accidental or immaterial advantages; the real difference between this and the American resort of the same rank consists in the manner and degree in which, both literally and figuratively, the way has been smoothed for the

visitor. As at Baden, and indeed everywhere else in this part of Germany, one can walk many miles through the forest over foot-paths as carefully graded and bridged as any highway, with guideboards at every crossing, and with a frequent succession of vistas so contrived that, though the view is the same, the effect is ever different. From whatever direction one returns to the village, one sees no ugly out-buildings, or back yards, or straight, shadeless street, but everywhere the most perfect neatness, and the exquisite foliage, not only of the trees but of the ever-present holly and ivy.

I have been curious to see whether the impressions of German life with which I left the country would be found lasting or the contrary on revisiting it. I can't say that I see anything in a new light, but I may be allowed, in closing, to mention a subject whose importance, indeed, we Americans admit, but which we are apt to judge, I think, one-sidedly. This is the importance in Germany, and, indeed, in all continental countries, of the army. Our economists, as well as our Jefferson Bricks, are never tired of telling us how wretched in this respect are the victims of European tyranny. They point out how the elders are ground down with taxation, and the younger men forced to waste three of their best years in idleness. In the opinions of the economists at least, I think, a stay in Germany would cause some change, in view of the advantages derived by the common people from their military training. Compare, for instance, a dirty, clumsy, stupid peasant lad with a soldier a year or two older, and mark the difference. I do not say that garrison life can make the short tall, or the heavy-witted bright, but physically it teaches them cleanliness, order, and the use of their limbs; and morally it lifts them out of the primitive ruts, gives them a wider mental horizon. And the best of it is, that, so far as I can learn, neither they nor the middle class (who practically are required to serve only one year) feel that they undergo any hardship. I do not flud, for instance, that the enormous emigration is at all caused by bad government, but solely by the same causes which have driven to the West the agricultural youth of New England—the redundancy of population and the opportunity of getting a better living.

W. M. G.

Correspondence.

THE EIGHT-HOUR LAW AND THE REPUBLICAN PLATFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read the *Nation* with great satisfaction because it intends to state things as they are. But the statement of the first article on page 549, concerning the eight-hour law, is entirely untrue. In no way does it "forbid anybody to work more than eight hours." It simply limits work to be done for the United States Government to eight hours, and it is just as beneficent for them as it is for other employees of the United States to work but six hours. It would be well to understand the "short hour" movement at least, for if anything was done with a true-hearted purpose that law was so passed, and such will its effect be. I send you this note merely as a protest, being satisfied that nothing I can write for print would find any place in your columns.

JESSE H. JONES.

NORTH ABINGTON, MASS., July 1, 1884.

[Mr. Jones evidently misconceives us. What we said was this:

"Labor is to be made artificially scarcer in two ways: first, by excluding foreign laborers, and second, by forbidding anybody to work more than eight hours. If the enforcement of the eight-hour law does not mean this it is a sham. Probably the framers of the resolution considered it a sham and adopted it knowing that it could not be enforced."

We were perfectly well aware that "the enforcement of the eight-hour law" taken by itself means simply knocking off work in the Government shops at the end of eight hours, and paying the price of ten hours' labor for it. But this we say is a sham to everybody except the handful of men in the Government employ, and is a fraud upon the taxpayers besides. It was intended to hold out a delusive expectation to laborers generally, and not to a small aristocracy of laborers in the Government workshops, that the Republican party had some mysterious and occult power to shorten the hours of labor without shortening the earnings of laborers, and would exercise that power. If the phrase "forbidding anybody to work more than eight hours" is inapt, we will change it to the form here indicated, which does not alter the character of the platform as "sham," and does not relieve it of its communistic taint.—ED. NATION.]

STUDENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following slip, from a New York paper, has just been sent to me: "Dr. Bascom, the President of the Wisconsin State University, gives a terrible report about that institution. He declares that a large number of the young men sent to Madison become dissipated and are ruined. Rowdiness and drunkenness prevail among the students at a rate that is alarming." I do not know from what paper it was taken, but it was probably copied in good faith, and with a recklessness as to the authority for its statements which deserves censure. As for the person who wrote the paragraph, he knew—or had the means of knowing—that it was a lie. So far is it from the truth that President Bascom never loses an opportunity of saying that our students are an exceptionally well-behaved and orderly body of young men and women.

The facts in the case are as follows: An organization known as the Law and Order League has for some months been engaged—and in the issue very successfully—in endeavoring to procure the enforcement of the provisions of the excise law regulating the saloons, which were constantly and openly violated. In support of this, and especially in view of the law which forbids the sale of liquor to minors, Dr. Bascom, on the 28th of March last, addressed a letter to the *Wisconsin State Journal*, from which I quote all the passages upon which the above-quoted scandal is based. The letter is too long to give in full. The passages are as follows: "Madison is not as safe a place as it might readily be, as it ought to be, for young men." "To one-half or two-thirds of the students of the University it is a matter of no moment that they are met at every turn by saloons that entirely disregard the laws which were made as safeguards to their years of inexperience. To another portion it is a fact of fatal significance." "In many cases the young men in attendance at the University are injured; in some cases they are ruined." "The State pays large sums of money to sustain the University. The city of Madison, by the open and constant violation of law, misleads a

portion of these students, educated at the public expense, and not only baffles so far the generosity of the State, but puts in its place a most evil and disgraceful result." "Certainly the city of Madison ought not to put in their way unnecessary and illegal temptations, nor ought it to be indifferent to the fact that this thing is habitually done, and results from time to time in the ruin of young men sent here to be educated. There are some who, through their own fault and our fault, have occasion to curse the hour in which they saw the beautiful city of Madison." It is only fair to add the following extract: "The students have rarely given any occasion for criticism."

Is it easy to believe that out of these expressions has grown the outrageous scandal quoted above?

WILLIAM F. ALLEN,

Professor in the University of Wisconsin.

MADISON, July 3

[We believe there is little doubt that the construction put on Dr. Bascom's letter originated with Keyes, the Wisconsin "boss," who will rule the State as a Blaine man, if his chief be elected. Keyes, who is a profane and ignorant blatherskite, was appointed one of the Regents of the University by a Republican Governor, with the almost avowed object of "getting even" with the President, and having him removed from office—an extraordinary thing, but one more illustration of the state of things in the Republican party, which has produced the Blaine nomination, and made Elkins and Chaffee the leading managers of his canvass.—ED. NATION.]

ARCHÆOLOGY AND THE TURKISH OFFICIALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to add a few brief remarks to the sharp and able paragraph in your number of May 29, relating to the conduct of Turkish officials in the partition of archaeological discoveries made at Assos. No later than June, 1883, having been directly informed by Baltazzi Bey, commissary to the Turkish Government, of the arrangement agreed upon between himself and the American delegates, I immediately wrote in the *Revue Archéologique* (1883, ii., p. 263) to protest against the terms of that arrangement, and insist upon the highly deplorable results which it involved for archaeology at large. My chief theme was the following, which I can do no better than to repeat here. The excavations at Assos were begun with a firman, issued at a time when the Turkish law about antiquities, promulgated in 1874, was still in vigor. Now, that law, the French text of which may be found in the *Ottoman Codes* of Nicolaïdes, expressly specifies that *indivisible discoveries shall not be divided, but valued*, and that the Porte will accept for its share two-thirds of the entire estimate. Again, the archaic frieze of the Doric temple in Assos, an important part of which was found by the American mission, must certainly be styled *indivisible*; and the best proof that the Turkish Government understands a frieze to form an indivisible whole, is that M. Benndorf was allowed, in 1882, to carry away the entire series of reliefs from the Mausoleum of Göl-Bagiché in Lycia, a telegram from Constantinople having ordered, in answer to his inquiries, that "indivisible antiquities should not be divided." I urged, in consequence, that it was the right and duty of the Americans not to surrender to the Turks a single slab of the epistyle, but to insist on the application of the law. In fact, one of the gentlemen had been authorized

to offer a large sum to redeem the entire frieze and some other statues; but the Turkish officials would not listen to him, and thus it was that two slabs were given over to the mission, while seven others made their way to Constantinople. A partition the result of which is that a most remarkable work of archaic art is now to be sought, partly in Paris, partly in Constantinople, and partly in America, may certainly be termed something worse than a failure—a real damage to civilization and learning.

Soon after my article had appeared in the *Revue Archéologique*, M. Ludlow, a member of the mission, wrote a brief letter to the same French periodical (1884, i., p. 52), stating that if the partition had been unfavorable to the excavators, the latter were not to be held responsible for it; that they had done all in their power to redeem the two-thirds of the discoveries claimed by the Turks, but had finally failed in presence of the obstinate reluctance shown by the Turkish officials, "perhaps alarmed," adds M. Ludlow, "by the polemic of a recent article published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*." This is a stone flung into my garden and an allusion to a paper I contributed in March, 1883, to the aforesaid *Revue*, under the title, "Le Vandalisme en Orient." It has several times been asserted that my attacks against the Turkish laws regulating antiquities had induced the Turks, and in particular Plaundî Bey, the fanatical director of Tchinli-Kiosk Museum, to enforce the severity of these laws and thus retaliate upon the civilized world. I take this opportunity to state that there is no truth in that story, and that the new regulations, which I will mention below, were already decided upon long before my article went through the press. In February, 1882, living on familiar terms with Hamdi Bey at Constantinople—I was then working at the Catalogue of the Museum—I soon understood Hamdi's intention to modify, in a draconic sense, the law on antiquities of 1874. Rightly alarmed by the prospect of such a reform, I tried, but quite in vain, to stir up a movement in an opposite sense; my article was only the last and most energetic effort I made to awaken public interest on so important a question. Having foretold the storm and done my best to avert it, I should not be accused now of having brought it about.

On the other hand, I wish expressly to assert that I never held the American scholars responsible for the disgraceful partition agreed upon at Assos. I know too well by my own experience that an archaeologist in Turkey, when not energetically upheld by his Ambassador, can do nothing but preach and cry in the desert. In 1881 I dug many tombs at Cyme, in Æolis, and made some very good discoveries. A dragoman of the United States Consulate in Smyrna, the name of whom I will charitably omit, thought he had some claims on the ground I was digging upon, and denounced me to the Turkish Government as having injured his rights. After three months wasted in scribbling reports and counter-reports, the Turks settled the quarrel by confiscating the whole of the discoveries and conveying them to Tchinli-Kiosk. The French Embassy was then very busy with Tunisian matters, and interfered only just enough to give the Turks the pleasure of taking no heed of it. A couple of months later, M. Schliemann, excavating at Troy, experienced all possible annoyance from the Turkish Commissary appointed as his overseer. A telegram from the German Chargé d'Affaires, declining to give him further help, is said to have been intercepted at Dardanelles by a Turkish official, who immediately informed Hamdi Bey that he could act as he chose toward Schliemann. Accordingly, the discoveries of the

German scholar were seized upon in great part by the director of the Ottoman Museum. It is somewhat strange that Dr. Schliemann, in his work just published on his last campaign in the Troad, has not a word about the partition of his discoveries; his silence is ominous enough, and betrays the grievous annoyances which he could not manage to escape.

If I give these particulars, it is because I wish your readers to understand that Turkish impudence and encroachments have been continually encouraged by the weakness or indifference of foreign diplomatists. Hamdi Bey, who is the son of a Prime Minister, soon perceived that no one would check him in his attempt to exclude Western scholarship from Oriental archaeology. Several reasons, the best of which are worth nothing, induced him and his friends to pursue that aim: firstly, the hatred of civilized Europe, which is a predominant instinct in the heart of every Turk, even if that Turk, as is the case with Hamdi, has been educated in France; secondly, the somewhat childish desire of imitating the external appearance of European civilization; thirdly, but not least, the hope that prohibitive laws may turn to the benefit of those who are intrusted with their application. A new regulation, drawn up by Hamdi, was submitted to a Commission, and finally, on the 21st of February of the current year, the new law on antiquities was issued and made known to the public by a French translation and extracts in the Constantinople papers *La Turquie* and the *Eastern Express*. The new law is a servile copy of the Greek one enacted in 1832, and may be briefly resumé thus: No excavation can be undertaken without the leave of the Government; no antiquity whatever can be exported out of Turkey. It is not even admitted that private individuals can possess collections of antiquities without immediately making them known to the Government. If a foreign state or an academy obtains the permission to dig, with archaeological purposes, the excavators shall pay the overseer appointed by the Government, but they will in no case be allowed to carry away any part of their discoveries. This is clear enough: the excavator must pay everything (in Greece the overseer is naturally paid by the Greek Government), and he will get nothing unless he is on good terms with Sultan Bakhshish—that is to say, unless he succeeds in bribing the overseer, the museum officials, and many others who will contrive to stand in his way.

I am sorry to state that not a European paper as yet, not one archaeological review excepting the *Revue Archéologique*, has protested against that barbarous regulation, or, indeed, seemed to be aware of its existence. German philological reviews know or care nothing about it. There was a rumor in Constantinople, when the decree was ready to be issued, that some Ambassadors wished to interfere; and they certainly had the right and the duty to do so, in the name of their respective national collections thus deprived of their main source of increase, and still more on behalf of ancient art and scientific research. It is reported that the German Ambassador discouraged the attempt, saying that Germany would always contrive to obtain favorable terms for her own archaeological investigations. Unfortunately for the museum in Berlin, things have taken a quite different turn. When the statues discovered in the last campaign at Pergamon had to be divided two months ago—the old partition system being still admitted for excavations begun under the former régime—the museum of Tchinli Kiosk claimed and obtained several beautiful fragments of the *Gigantomachy* and of the frieze of Telephus, the remainder of which had been previously secured

by the Berlin Museum. M. Derris, H. M. Consul General in Smyrna, who possessed a firman for excavating at Sardes, immediately abandoned his plan, not caring to work under the absurd and leonine conditions imposed by the Turkish law of 1884. It is probable that the Austrian Government, which has lately obtained a firman to dig at Elasa and at Lagina, will do exactly like M. Derris. Truly, Hamdi Bey has announced for the past twelvemonth in the Turkish papers that he was about beginning large excavations at the expense of the Ottoman Government; but who can be simple or foolish enough to suppose that the Turks will ever find money for archaeological researches, in a country utterly destitute of schools, bridges, and means of intercourse? Except M. Edmond About, I know of no reasonable man having as yet been taken in and deluded by Hamdi Bey's humbug and charlatanism.

I must add a few words more to justify the severity of my censure respecting the new Turkish regulation and its authors. Europe and her diplomatists, by their benignant indifference or silent complicity, are partly answerable for the injury thus inflicted upon science, and it seems fit that every scholar in the Old and in the New World should understand the nature and extent of the injury sustained and the far-reaching consequences it involves. The law of 1874, enforced by that of 1884, forbids, under the penalty of confiscation and of a heavy fine, the exportation of works of ancient art. Now the obvious result of that absurd prohibition being to increase the price of antiquities on the markets of Europe, and the Turkish Government being quite unable and unwilling to purchase any works accidentally discovered in the country, the first consequence of the law is that antiquities continue to be exported in secret, but with all the fatal inconveniences attached to archaeological smuggling: 1st. The origin of the antiquities exported to Europe is systematically altered by the dealers, who fear to attract the notice of the Turkish officials. Thus it happens that nobody can ascertain for the present the origin of some magnificent groups in terracotta, superior to the finest specimens from Tanagra and Myrina, which have recently been sold in Paris. 2d. Marble statues, sometimes of high value, are daily being broken to pieces, in order to be sold off in pieces by their owners, a head going to Paris and a foot to Berlin. I can vouch for the perfect certainty of my information with regard to that scandalous practice, which is particularly frequent in Asia Minor. As the Turkish Government confiscates without indemnity the antiquities found by the natives, the latter are almost compelled to break what they find, to be able to carry the pieces off and sell them secretly.

Such facts speak for themselves and sufficiently condemn the regulations and the officials who are alone answerable for them. I wish they could excite some indignation among the liberal-minded readers of this journal. They will perhaps think with me that if diplomacy dared to interfere collectively in matters of such high interest for civilization, no intelligent man, to whatever nation he might belong, would accuse his ambassador or minister of wasting his time, paper, and ink in pleading the cause of learning against wantonness and vandalism.

SALOMON REINACH.

PARIS, June 10, 1884.

Notes.

PROF. WILLIAM D. WHITNEY'S 'Sanskrit Grammar, including both the Classical Language and the Older Dialects of Veda and Brahmana,' will be published at once by Gian, Heath & Co.

The more important announcements of Dodd, Mead & Co. are, a popular edition of 'Pepys's Diary,' from the same plates as their late *édition de luxe*; Church's 'Stories of the Persian War' and 'Roman Life in the Days of Cicero'; 'French Etchers'; and 'The Merchant Vessel,' by Charles Nordhoff.

The 'Fairalls of Tipton,' a new novel by Virginia W. Johnson, will soon be issued from the press of Charles Scribner's Sons. The same firm will publish the American edition of Rae's 'Contemporary Socialism' and Prof. Reville's (Hibbert) Lectures on 'The Ancient Religions of Mexico and Peru.'

A. C. Armstrong & Son announce a three-volume standard edition of Josephus, and 'Wild Adventures Around the Pole,' by the author of the entertaining 'Cruise of the Snow Bird.'

We have received the prospectus of 'The New England Institute Year Book of American Art,' which will be issued in connection with the art catalogue of the fourth annual autumn exhibition of the Institute at Boston. This volume, with its illustrations, is intended to be a concise and comprehensive account of the art work of the United States for the year 1884 in twenty-one departments, among which are the various modes of painting, engraving, and decoration—ceramics, textiles, brass-work, glass-work, etc. The reproduction processes employed will be of different kinds according to the subject. The work, on the mechanical part of which no pains will be spared, promises to be of still greater interest and value than the successful catalogue of 1883, which has led to the undertaking.

Dr. J. C. Sundberg (D. G. Brinton, Philadelphia) has prepared a little essay on 'Health Hints to Travellers.' It is practical and trustworthy, but might with advantage be somewhat fuller.

Dr. Rowditch Morton's 'Hand-book of First Aid to the Injured,' published by the society interested in that subject, fairly accomplishes the difficult exercise of arranging technical instruction in popular form, and is worthy of study. A chapter of crude physiology opens the book, and one upon nursing closes it. The misprints of Sheel for Scheele (p. 58), uræmic for uræmic (p. 56), the advertisement of Pond's Extract (p. 22), and associating Esmarch's name (p. 65) in place of Mayor's with the triangular handkerchief bandage, seem quite unnecessary.

'Cheshire Gleanings,' by William E. A. Axon (Manchester: Tubbs, Brook & Chrystal), is a book of much the same character as 'Lancashire Gleanings,' by the same author, reviewed by us several months ago (*Nation*, No. 953). It is a collection of miscellaneous papers, some fifty in number, mostly short, of considerable local interest, and many of them of importance in general history. Such titles as Dean Stanley and Alderley; Was Marat a Teacher at Warrington? The Wizard of Alderley Edge; The King of the Cats; The Chester Plays; Cheshire Proverbs; Dr. John Ferriar, indicate well enough the character of the book, with which any one may agreeably pass a leisure hour, and from which real information may be gleaned by those who know how to use it.

We have received 'Appleton's General Guide to the United States and Canada,' conveniently bound in two handy volumes, and clearly printed and well furnished with maps. The information which it contains is of interest to others than travellers, and in some respects it is an admirable book of reference.

The last issue of the Parchment-Paper Series (New York: D. Appleton & Co.) is 'Pictures of Life and Character, by John Leech. From the Collection of Mr. Punch,' a selection of eighty sketches by that amiable satirist whose representations of the social fashions and interests of English life make one of the most truthful and

instructive forms in which the history of this century has left its impress. The praise which Thackeray delighted to accord to Leech would have been a more charming introduction than the excerpts from Mr. Henry James's article on Du Maurier, which, though sound and discriminating, lack the *bonhomie* of the older and more humane critic.

Observers of the weather in New England will be pleased to learn of the formation of the New England Meteorological Society, with the aim of coördinating and extending observations of rainfall, temperature, and other climatic elements. Such records are already made at many places, but their usefulness is much limited because they are rarely published and seldom compared. The Meteorological Society desires to bring together all the records now kept, encourage the keeping of many more, and publish a monthly summary of the results obtained. The Secretary, at Cambridge, Mass., will be glad to send a circular descriptive of the Society's plans to those who feel an interest in these matters, whether they can act as observers or not.

A call has been issued for a meeting to be held in Putnam Hall, Saratoga, September 9, during the session of the American Social Science Association, for the purpose of forming an American Historical Association. A few original papers will be presented at that time, and action taken looking to the closer coöperation of historical students in the country both with one another and with specialists in the cognate branches of social science, jurisprudence, and political economy. The call is signed by the President and Secretary of the Social Science Association and by Prof. C. K. Adams, of Michigan, Prof. M. C. Tyler, of Cornell, and Prof. H. B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins.

It is stated by one of our contemporaries that Mr. Julian Hawthorne and his publishers are receiving a large number of letters from readers of 'Archibald Malmaison' who wish to be confirmed in their belief that the story is true. The question, we think, is very definitely settled by the second sentence of the book, where it is stated that the hero "had the odd distinction of being born on the 29th of February, 1800." This is a very odd distinction indeed; for, what could be odder than for a "real" person to be born on a day which never existed? Is it charitable to suppose that Mr. Hawthorne was ignorant of the fact that the year 1800 was not a leap year?

One of the Positivist societies of London proposes to publish, under the editorial care of Mr. Frederic Harrison, a volume to be called 'The New Calendar of Great Men.' It will contain short notices of each of the 558 persons whose names appear in the Positivist Calendar drawn up by Auguste Comte. The work will be the result of coöperative effort, and if well done, as it is likely to be under the care of Mr. Harrison, it will form a handy manual of the history of the course of civilization as conceived by the founder of the Religion of Humanity.

Another publication which would be very significant of the religious confusions of the past age is one that M. Renan seems to promise in the preface to his recently printed 'Nouvelles Études d'Histoire Religieuse.' He says he has often dreamed of extracting some passages from his writings and, in somewhat the same way as Saint Nil reduced the manual of Epictetus to the needs of the Christian life, rearranging them and issuing the collection under the title 'Lectures pieuses.' The contents would be divided into fifty-two parts, one for every Sunday; and in each part there would be a passage from the Gospels and the Fathers, a prayer and some "ejaculations" (to use the Elizabethan word)

in the manner of François de Sales. "A pious woman," he says, "would perceive only by certain omissions the difference between such a book and the prayer-book that she carries to church with her. Perhaps she might end by preferring it in some ways." The volume would certainly be a very curious and interesting one.

Of the recent announcements of Firmin-Didot, two, of which we have received the prospectus from F. W. Christern, are of especial interest: Pougin's 'Dictionnaire historique et pittoresque du Théâtre et des Arts qui s'y rattachent,' and 'La Renaissance en Italie et en France à l'Époque de Charles VIII,' in which the account of the literary and artistic movement is by Eugène Muntz. The former of these will be illustrated with four hundred engravings and eight chromo-lithographs, and will cover the history and furnishings of the stage in a very thorough and graphic way so that it will form a work unique in theatrical literature. The second, although it must follow the lines of Burckhardt and Symonds to some degree, is based on original research and cannot fail to be a fascinating study of the period.

Mr. Henry James's 'American' has just been published in Paris as 'L'Américain à Paris'; it is translated by M. Léon Bochet, and published by Hachette. Mr. Crawford's 'Dr. Claudius' is about to appear as a serial in the *Indépendance Belge*.

The *Bibliotheca Sacra* for July announces that this review will hereafter be issued both at Oberlin, O., and Andover, Mass. The editors will be Professors Wright, Smith, and Ballantine, of Oberlin, with several associates in other parts of this country and in England. The price is reduced to \$3, but no change of theological position is contemplated.

In the June issue of *Shaksperiana* Mr. F. G. Fleay, the well-known student of early dramatic literature, begins a series of articles on the annals of Shakspeare's contemporaries which will be very valuable for purposes of reference. The subject of the first is Ben Jonson, whose career is detailed very fully year by year. The completed series will form a hand-book and encyclopædia of our knowledge about the Shaksperian stage, which is now scattered in obscure and untrustworthy volumes, and it will deserve credit.

We have not come to the end of plagiarism yet. M. Georges Ohnet, whose 'Maitre de Forges' was a success as a novel, a still greater success as a play, and not without success when translated and played here, has been accused of having copied, conveyed, transferred from a Swedish novel by Madame Carlén. M. Ohnet defends himself like the lawyer who advanced four pleas for his client: that he never borrowed the plot, that it was broken when he borrowed it, that it was whole when he returned it, and that there never was any plot at all. M. Ohnet says: "I never read Madame Carlén's novel," which would seem to be enough, but is not for him. He goes on to claim for an author the right to "take his goods where he finds them," to use whatever is to his purpose in the writings of his predecessors, and reminds M. Henri Rochefort, to whom his letter is addressed, how Corneille borrowed from the Spanish theatre, Molière from Plautus and Terence, Lafontaine from Æsop and Pædrus, which is all true; but as he had not read and therefore could not have used Carlén's novel, it is not at all relevant.

The literary history of the prohibitory indexes issued by the Roman Catholic Church, is the subject of a valuable work by Professor Reusch, entitled 'Der Index der verbotenen Bücher.' The first volume, dealing with prolific indexes of the sixteenth century, is just published. Professor Knapp, of Yale College, has, for several years, we believe, been engaged in making re-

searches into the bibliography of the indexes, and has collected material for a complete record of the various editions.

Gustave Larroumet, who is best known by his important work upon *Marivaux*, published at Paris in 1882, has prepared an edition of "*Les Précieuses Ridicules*" of Molière, in which he summarizes the net results of the numerous historical and critical studies which have been published upon Molière. The original text is reproduced, with the significant variants, leaving out all those which appear to be mere typographical errors. The principal facts and dates are given in the introduction. In commenting, Larroumet has profited largely by the labors of Despois and Moland, subjecting their conclusions, however, to critical examination in the light of original documents.

The history of Istria from the ancient times down to the reign of Augustus, is the subject of careful and thorough treatment in Benussi's "*L'Istria, sino ad Augusto*," Trieste, 1883. The first two chapters of the work are devoted to its ancient geography, and the ethnology of the Istrians occupies the third chapter. The history of Istria before the Roman conquest is then taken up, and the work closes with a survey of the social and political condition of Istria under Roman administration, and an appendix contains a list of geographical names of Istria found in the ancient writers.

—The curious article in the *Bibliographer* for June is the first part of a reprint of the famous bibliographical hoax, "*The Fortsas Catalogue*," invented by M. René Chalon, of Brussels, in 1840. This volume, which numbered fourteen pages, purported to be a list of the books of the Count J. N. A. de Fortsas, about to be sold at Binche, in Belgium. It contained only fifty-two titles, but as the Count had excluded from his collection every book ever mentioned in any bibliography, the fifty-two were, of course, all unique. Orders were sent in good faith from all parts of Europe by expert bibliophiles, and in the course of the affair there were the usual illustrations of human credulity and self-deception. Men recollected seeing books that never existed, and one printer, the foreman of M. Casteman, of Tournay, remembered a bogus volume on the Belgian revolution of 1830 that was credited to his press, and furthermore recalled its mythical author "perfectly." Some of the titles which are now reproduced are truly tantalizing, and others so suggestive of good things that one does not wonder that Tschener was unwilling to credit Nodier's sagacity, who declared the whole book a joke. He ordered, for example, No. 36: "*Évangile du citoyen Jésus, purgé des idées aristocrates et royalistes, et ramené aux vrais principes de la raison, par un bon sans culotte*," Arras, au III. de la République une et indivisible, 12mo, pp. 168. An incomplete volume." Van de Weyer and Crozat ordered the same book. No. 35, "*Poésies de Carême (du Sieur Poisson) à la Trappe*," chez Lafriture (Mons. Henri Bottin), 1779," would probably find many a secret purchaser, and "*Le Sardanapale de ce temps (à la sphère)*," 1699," a satire on Louis XIV., by "the infamous and mysterious Cornelle Biessebois," was much sought for by the learned. The Princess de Ligne, for the honor of her family, ordered No. 48 at any price. On the whole, interesting and valuable as some of these imaginary books might prove, it is a matter for congratulation that they were only the phantom progeny of "a miscreative brain." Of such literature bound in citron morocco, stamped with ducal and royal arms, and hoarded on velvet cushions, there is enough and to spare in the world already.

—Those educators who regret the steps now being taken to deprive the classics of their su-

premacy in the college curriculums, and who regard the movement as peculiarly American, democratic, and calculated to make our standard of culture different from that which prevails abroad, will find food for reflection in an article in the last issue of *Le Livre*, which devotes considerable space to a discussion of the disfavor into which books written in Latin have fallen. Brunet, more than twenty years ago, had noticed that the fine editions of Latin books issued from the older presses were becoming cheaper, and he was disposed to ascribe this lamentable change in the market to the rivalry of better texts. The writer of this article disagrees with him, and points out the fact that editions of the classics are seldom printed now except for schoolboys; that the old editions are not sought for unless in the case of Bibles, or books valued for some extraneous fact regarding their history, binding, or ownership; and that consequently, as compared with similar editions of books in other languages, those in Latin are comparatively cheap—a circumstance on which he congratulates the poor professors, who can now afford to buy them. In discussing the various causes of this decline, he incidentally remarks on the history of the prestige of Latin in France, and what he says is true of other countries. In the first place, he reminds us that Latin, even when written and spoken in the monasteries and by scholars, was a dead language, and that only on this supposition can its decadence from the mediæval times be accounted for. "A living tongue," he says, "is rooted in the social manners and the blood of the race that speaks it; centuries of persecution cannot suppress it. Latin was not persecuted: on the contrary, it was subsidized—an official class and a budget was devoted to its service; but in spite of all this it could not maintain itself." Fashion, he adds, kept it up until our times. In the last age it was good form to know it and to be able to quote it, just as was the case with Italian in the sixteenth and Spanish in the seventeenth centuries; but now the mode has changed: "It is no longer good form to know Latin, to possess a library of Latin authors, or to quote them. It is thought pedantic to fatigue one's self with their perusal. . . . The truth is, no one learns Latin any more, knows it, speaks it, still less writes it: *what is worse, the fashion of affecting to know it no longer exists.*" The italics are his own. What follows reads a good deal like an American view by an advanced utilitarian: "In fact, it is worth while to repeat, real life is too exacting: it is given over to appetites that our fathers never knew. We cannot afford to devote ten years to the study of a dead language, foreign to the larger part of our interests. We leave it behind more and more. There is no discussion, no war of the pen; we recede from it without a word, with a determined step which makes explanation needless. Public instruction has not yet accepted the accomplished fact; soon or late it must." So it appears, if this be authoritative, that the "freemasonry" of scholarship may hold for a while between the schoolboys of the two continents, but that it is already *passé* so far as the cultivated classes in general are concerned.

—At a recent meeting of the trustees of the Peabody Museum of Archaeology of Harvard University, attention was principally devoted to the report of the curator, Mr. F. W. Putnam, in regard to the work now being done in excavating the mounds of the Ohio group, and in particular the great mound of the Turner group in the Little Miami Valley. In consequence of the discussion Mr. Putnam is to prepare a paper to be read at the next meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science,

and on the completion of the undertaking a full account for publication by the Museum. It was also decided to raise by subscription the sum of one thousand dollars for the further prosecution of the work, in view of the remarkable discoveries which have been made. In fact, it is believed that former explorations in this field are practically of no consequence, and that the general theory in regard to these mounds must be essentially modified. It would seem that these structures, which are scattered over our country, are the work of different periods and of a race of which the Indians, as known to us, are merely a branch, if, indeed, they are ethnically related to the mound builders who preceded them in the occupancy of this continent. The problem of American archaeology is yearly showing itself a more interesting and far more complex and obscure study, owing to the constantly increasing number and variety of the relics unearthed. The recent discoveries in the Ohio mounds in particular, are of a novel and suggestive character and point to a remote prehistoric period. The papers of Mr. Putnam will be looked for with great interest; but that they may be complete it is essential to furnish the funds for the excavation that remains to be done. Subscriptions may be sent to J. C. Phillips, State St., Boston, or to any trustee, or to Mr. Putnam.

—Two little brochures, privately printed at Baltimore within a few weeks, have not only a common source, but a common basis of interest. One of these—Bluntschli's "*Life Work*"—sketches briefly, in its thirty-one pages, the career of a writer and teacher whose position is coming to be better and better recognized. Under three subordinate headings, dealing successively with his work at Zürich, at Munich, and at Heidelberg, the characteristics of his chief publications are concisely noted; while the whole is followed by a very complete bibliography of his writings, covering more than two pages, closely printed. The other pamphlet is entitled "*Bluntschli, Lieber, and Laboulaye*," its forty-two pages being divided with considerable impartiality between the three publicists named. There is of course a reason for thus grouping these three eminent names. A significant sentence (quoted from Bluntschli) indicates one of the grounds for this juxtaposition: "*Lieber in New York, Laboulaye in Paris, and I in Heidelberg formed what Lieber used to call a scientific clover-leaf.*" An "international clover-leaf," as well, this felicitous connection and correspondence of the three, in cooperative economic studies, might properly be called. But quite as significant as this circumstance is the fact that the papers, correspondence, etc., of these distinguished investigators have, in two of these instances, found a permanent resting place on this side of the Atlantic, in the special library of the Department of History and Political Science, at Johns Hopkins University. Bluntschli, who died in 1881, expressed in his will a desire that his collection "might go to America." By an uncommonly happy inspiration, this most valuable collection was secured through funds subscribed by German citizens of Baltimore, and placed where it will for the future be turned to account in such a manner as would have delighted the soul of its original collector. Bluntschli's manuscripts, moreover, are the direct gift of his family to the same institution. And during the present year, the widow of Francis Lieber has added to the same collection the "author's copies" of her husband's works, in many instances "richly illustrated by his notes and comments." To the same collection, finally, have been added the works written by Laboulaye, "so that," to use the language of the pamphlet from which we

have already quoted, "these three names are likely to be always associated in the minds of historical students in Baltimore." The Bluntschli collection, as at present classified, arranged, and catalogued, numbers about 8,000 volumes and over 10,000 pamphlets, and is almost unsurpassed as a collection of works on international law and related topics. To a thoughtful mind, not the least significant consideration in connection with these accessions, displaying as they do so intelligent a foresight and so wide-reaching a plan, is their revelation of the methods through which this institution is laying the foundations of future opportunities for intelligent study and research.

—'The Teaching of the Twelve Apostles' continues to occupy the attention of the theological public. The April number of *The Journal of Christian Philosophy* was almost entirely made up of discussions of the document, and the articles relating to it are now issued in a separate pamphlet (New York: 30 Bible House and B. Westermann & Co.). This contains the Greek text; English translation by Prof. S. S. Orris, of Princeton; the genuineness, priority, source and value of 'The Teaching,' by Mr. J. R. Harris, of Baltimore; the phraseology of 'The Teaching' as an index of its age, by Dr. Isaac H. Hall, of Philadelphia; and comments on 'The Teaching,' by Dr. E. R. Craven, of Newark. Mr. Harris finds that the ideas of the tract belong to the early post-Apostolic period of the Church, that it was known to Clement of Alexandria, Irenæus, Barnabas, and Hermas, and so falls before the main body of second-century literature, and that its author was a Jewish Christian, probably of Northern Syria—and he draws a conclusion as to the early date of the first Gospel, which is quoted in 'The Teaching.' Dr. Hall infers an early date for the tract from its phraseology; forty-nine-fiftieths of the vocabulary, he says, belong to a period as early as the New Testament itself, while the rest either has a primitive Christian tone or is found in early extra-Biblical writings. Dr. Craven remarks on the practical, the liturgical, the ministerial, and the eschatological ideas of the book; his opinion of the date is the same as that of the other contributors. The articles are all good; those of Messrs. Harris and Hall are the more valuable. A German translation of 'The Teaching' has been made by the well-known rabbinical scholar, Dr. Aug. Wünsche, of Dresden (Leipzig: Otto Schultze; New York: B. Westermann & Co.), with the notes of Bryennios and some of his own, and an index of Greek words. The translator regards the tract as very early (by a Jewish Christian of the second century), and thinks that it needs a careful philological and historical investigation, thought by thought, word by word.

—A not very satisfactory account of modern native religious movements in India comes to us under the title, 'Brahmoism; or History of Reformed Hinduism, from its origin in 1830, under Rajah Mohun Roy, to the present time, with a particular account of Babu Keshub Chunder Sen's connection with the movement. By Ram Chandra Bose' (New York: Funk & Wagnalls). So far as their history is concerned, the several organizations called Somaj are described with sufficient clearness and fairness, from the Adi or Conservative Somaj of Ram Mohun Roy and Debendro Nath Tagore, a pantheistic form of theism which still clung to the old sacred writings and to caste, through the Progressive Somaj and the New Dispensation of Chunder Sen, which has striven to abolish caste and to introduce other social reforms, but has not escaped a mystical and autocratic tendency, up to the latest phase of the movement, the Sadbaran

Brahmo Somaj, which may be called a simple and sober-minded theism. Justice is done also to their ethical purity and the excellence of their social reform work. But beyond this Mr. Bose can see only evil in these systems. He is a Christian missionary of Lucknow, and writes to explain why he cannot affiliate with the Somaj. His object is to prove that it is not identical with the Calvinistic Trinitarian form of Christianity which he himself professes. His readers will readily grant this proposition, and will wish that he had shown a little more intellectual and spiritual hospitality, a disposition to praise and accept the good more heartily as well as to denounce the faulty. But he cannot receive the Brahmo Somaj as an ally—for him it is Satan trying to don an angel's worn-out dress. He can see nothing real or affecting in Mr. Mozoomdar's religious experience. He dismisses Emerson contemptuously as a self-worshipper, and distinguishes Mr. Joseph Cook with the title of "illustrious." Mr. Bose shows good knowledge of the literature of his subject, native and foreign, and it is a pity that a book which is so good should not be a great deal better. It is always a pity when a defence of Christianity is made in a narrow, sectarian spirit.

—It may not be too late to refer our readers to a fertile and suggestive study by H. M. Regel on George Chapman's translation of Homer in one of the more recently bygone volumes of *Englische Studien*. Those of them who have read Chapman's wonderful, often brilliant, and yet fantastic performance will look with interest on Regel's painstaking research, which aims at no less than an exhaustive consideration of Chapman's general and special fidelity to his original, his treatment of the fourteen-syllabled line in the 'Iliad' and the heroic couplet in the 'Odyssey,' his blunders, misunderstandings, and inaccuracies in his dealings with the Greek particles, his interpolations, and his superabounding diction, which overflows even the capacious Homeric moulds. In the second part of his investigation he treats minutely of Chapman's translation as a work of art, of its extensive influence on the mind and art of his contemporaries, and of the spell which his bold and compelling spirit cast over Keats, Coleridge, and Swinburne. The plastic resource of English is shown in his successful imitation of many of the intricate compounds of Homer. In point and epigram his 'Odyssey' was a forerunner of Pope's. German-like, the essayist counts the rhymes and finds much that is inexact, licentious, intolerable, relieved, however, by a fresh and vivid vocabulary, a true poetic instinct, a genius for interpretation. A comparison of Cowper, Pope, and Chapman concludes the paper.

—At a conference of British architects, last May, Mr. R. P. Spiers read a paper on the French, German, and English systems of architectural instruction. It is only for twenty-two years that France has had an examination for the *diplôme d'architecte*; in four of those years no examinations were held, and in all only ninety-four candidates have obtained it. A subject is annually proposed to pupils of the *École des Beaux-Arts*, a sketch is made by them in the school, and six months are given to work out the full plans, elevations, sections, working drawings, details, and specifications, as if the building were to be constructed. When these are handed in, the candidates are orally examined on the various details in their drawings, the theory and practice of their construction, the qualities and defects of the materials employed, their strength and stability, and also on the history of architecture, on physics and chemistry applied to construction, and on building law.

To prepare for all this requires about seven years' study, so that the French architect gets a much more thorough training than either the English or the American. So does the German: his university or school gives him a knowledge of geometrical drawing, drawing from the cast, mathematics, and physics. With this preparation, he passes a year in an architect's office, to learn what the profession is and what he will need to know. Then two years of school, with lectures on physics, mathematics, construction, ventilation, warming, and sanitary science, give him a chance to copy designs and to make original plans. If he passes the examination at the end of this time, he gets the degree of *Bau-führer*, and an appointment for three years on some Government building as inspector or clerk, on a nominal salary; and then two more years of school and another examination give him the title of *Baumeister*. His apprenticeship, therefore, has lasted eight years; and if he has any ability, he ought to be an excellent master builder. In England, it appears from Mr. Spiers's address, there is no school instruction in architecture at all. A young man coming from an ordinary English school, with no knowledge of free-hand or geometrical drawing, enters an architect's office and picks up ideas as best he may, without any systematic teaching. Neither English nor German students travel much, the latter because their course is so long that they have no time; but the Viennese travel two years in north Italy, and the French four years in Italy and Greece. American architects have of late years travelled much, to the very great advantage of their art; and the Roach travelling scholarship, for which an examination was lately held in Boston, will encourage this tendency. It will be noticed that the German course gives a great deal of practical training. There has been some complaint that the French course in the *École des Beaux-Arts* was too theoretical and scientific, for which reason a very practical character has of late been given to the examination for the *diplôme d'architecte*. The French Government is always quick to notice defects in its art and industrial education; and if its methods are not always the best, it is at least not wedded to them, but ready to try others.

—'Gli Stati Uniti e la Concorrenza Americana' is the title of a very interesting and instructive volume just published by E. Rossi, treating of the agricultural, industrial, and commercial resources and development of the United States and their immediate as well as future effect on the Italian and other European markets. The author, who is a very intelligent and thorough observer, fortifying his statements at every step with official statistics, is lost in wonder at the immensity and variety of the products of this country. The book is divided into two parts, the first of which contains the description of the economic development of the American Republic, and principally of the "new States which the Americans have accustomed us to represent to the imagination as the type of the infinite—the Far West—which is rather a conception of the mind than a geographical limit." There is an admirable discussion of the public-land system and its results in peopling the wildernesses of the West; a large space is devoted to the investigation of the various agricultural sections of the United States, which Rossi divides into six zones according to the density of the population; the quantity as well as the cost of cereal production is carefully estimated; the pastoral resources of the country are weighed and considered, and the production of live stock and preserved meats comes in for intelligent treatment. The second part of the

book deals particularly with the effects of American competition on the transatlantic food centers, which induces a diligent study of the expenditure necessary to bring the products of the "zona frumentaria," of the cattle ranches, and the "carni conservate" to market. The results of the study are extremely favorable to this country; and the author's final thought is: If America enjoys such unrivalled advantages over other countries even now, when her 2,900,000 square miles of cultivable territory are but half colonized, what is her future—and what is our future—to be when the colonization and utilization of the entire territory are accomplished facts?

—Gastronomy among the ancient Romans is the subject of Heft 417 of the *Sammlung wissenschaftlicher Vorträge*, published by Carl Habel in Berlin. Dr. Saalfeld has not been able to discover much that is new on his topic, but has made an interesting and exhaustive summary of the facts collected from various sources. At the beginning he alludes to the fact that, just as modern German cookery is dependent on French example, so the Romans were influenced by the Greeks, the "Frenchmen of antiquity." The universal love of sausages appears to be another bond of union between the modern German and the ancient Romans. On the whole, Dr. Saalfeld thinks that we are inclined to exaggerate the extravagance of the Roman epicures on account of some special instances recorded for the astonishment of posterity. As for the matter of excess, even a Roman drinker would have hesitated before following the custom of the mediæval German knights, who filled up their cavalry boots and emptied them. The German students who drain their glass at a draught had their prototypes among the contemporaries of Horace. The salary of cooks in some cases exceeded \$5,000, and has hardly been equalled in modern times. The ancient epicures, like the modern, appeared to prefer the animals of the sea and air to those of the earth, and it is a curious fact that it took much time before beef was accepted as a general article of food of equal rank with lamb, veal, and goat. The modern epicure blesses the day when he was born on reading that his ancient colleagues knew not the piquant caviare. Of salads the Romans had abundant variety. The use of honey in place of the almost unknown sugar must have added a peculiar flavor to ancient pastry, which it might be an advantage to restore. Butter was only known for its medicinal uses, its culinary place being taken by oil and honey, which we must admit appear to be more satisfactory than our insidious butterine and oleomargarine.

—In one of last year's numbers of Treitschke's *Preussische Jahrbücher*, Dr. Karl Koberstein, the dramatic poet, had the courage to assail the fame of the volunteer corps which Lützow commanded in the rising against Napoleon I., and which Theodor Körner immortalized by his songs and death. For seventy years, since the day when Körner fell pierced by a French bullet, an hour after finishing "Song of the Sword," the names Körner, Lützow, "Lützow's Black Hunters," and "Lützow's Wild Hunt," have been stirring remembrances of the German people. This tribute of admiration and patriotic gratitude seemed excessive to Dr. Koberstein, who, like Treitschke, is a strong believer in the wisdom and merits of the House of Hohenzollern, and of the predecessors of the Moltkes and Bismarcks in its councils, and proportionally sceptical in regard to popular risings, volunteer bands, guerilla warfare, undisciplined bravery, and youthful liberal enthusiasm. He thought

the time had come to destroy the Lützow and Körner "legend," and substitute for it a chapter of dry history. He attacked, with a great display of historical and critical research, the plan, the composition, and the military record of the corps; the abilities, and even the disposition and impulses of its members. To abridge his indictment, the corps was a motley crowd of men of science, poets, sons of officials, and mechanics, mixed with vagabonds, deserters, and former inmates of penitentiaries; there was more playing at war than fighting, a great deal of swagger, of Teutonic masquerading, of empty declamation, of idle revolutionary dreaming; no experienced leadership, no obedience, no application. Almost everything was hollow, not excluding the pathos of Körner's lyre—and death. He threw away his youthful life from vaingloriousness, rather than from true heroic motives. Had Prussia's armies consisted of warriors like Lützow, Körner, Petersdorf, Jahn, and their less famous and less worthy fellow-volunteers, there would have been desultory and reckless fighting, as at Gadebusch, but no Leipzig and no victory of German independence. This sweeping attack by Dr. Koberstein has met with a very vigorous defence. The vindicator of the honor of Lützow's Volunteer Corps, "K. v. L."—probably Karl von Lützow—has devoted a separate pamphlet to the task ("Adolph Lützow's Frei-Corps in der Jahren 1813 und 1814"), and has done his work with thoroughness and ability. He has overwhelmed the assailant with evidence drawn from history, correspondence, and official war records, and seems to have placed him, in the eyes of his countrymen, in the unenviable position of a hypocritical judge, biased by anti-liberal prejudices. Treitschke, in his *Jahrbücher*, however, will probably take his part.

—One does not usually look to Spain for such books as Enrique Píñeyro's "Poetas Famosos del Siglo XIX., Sus Violas y Sus Obras" (Madrid: Libreria Gutenberg, 1883), which is a collection of essays of a kind more frequently met with in the lighter periodicals of France and Germany. The author, a Cuban by birth, is evidently a man of considerable culture and wide reading—a disciple, after a fashion, of the school of criticism which produced in Mme. de Staël's "De l'Allemagne" its master-work. He discusses Shakspeare, Keats, Shelley, Byron, Wordsworth, Espronceda, Leopardi, Goethe, Schiller, Heine, Lamartine, Musset, Victor Hugo—a truly cosmopolitan array of literary celebrities—in a pleasant and intelligent manner. His book reflects, on the whole generally accepted opinions and conventional literary canons. Such of his illustrations and analogies as may lay claim to originality are sometimes naïvely uncritical. Thus, one reads with a smile that Leopardi was, "so to speak, a modern Plato, with the supreme gift of metric and harmonious language, which the ancient Plato lacked." Señor Píñeyro does not often indulge in really dogmatic assertions, such as that "Schiller's last dramatic works—'Wallenstein,' 'Maria Stuart,' and 'Wilhelm Tell'—are indisputably superior to Goethe's 'Egmont,' 'Torquato Tasso,' and 'Iphigenie.'" His unbounded enthusiasm for Victor Hugo's poetry, which may be said to permeate the entire book, culminates in the following concerning the "Légende des Siècles": "It contains many passages, entire pages, as good as the most celebrated of Milton, as rich in figures and images of every kind as the 'Divine Comedy,' marvels of style like those of the 'Æneid,' prodigies of poesy like those of 'Faust.'" It is, however, but fair to add that the author is much more discriminating in his estimate of the political achievements of Victor Hugo. Non-

Spanish readers of the book will occasionally find amusement in recognizing 'Guillermo Meister,' 'Godofredo de Berlichingen,' 'Intriga y Amor,' etc., the original titles of the works being omitted. More unusual still seem "Mateo" Arnold and "Jerje" Sand. The biographical portion of the work is rather meagre.

GINDELY'S THIRTY YEARS' WAR.—I.

History of the Thirty Years' War. By Anton Gindely, Professor of German History in the University of Prague. Translated by Andrew Ten Brook, formerly Professor of Mental Philosophy in the University of Michigan. With an Introductory and Concluding Chapter by the Translator. Complete in two volumes. With twenty-eight illustrations and two maps. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It seems a little singular at first thought that the literature of history should have been obliged to wait 200 years and more for a satisfactory account of that strange compound of political, religious, and military events known as the Thirty Years' War. And yet the explanation is not far to seek. What was called Germany at that time was not a nation, but only a name for a loosely connected confederation of practically independent States. Each one of the numerous members of the confederation had its own form of government with which no other member had any political right to interfere. The ruling house in each of the States was ambitious to help itself on in every possible way toward the ultimate establishment of a recognized monarchy. In each of the States, therefore, there were political parties as well as religious differences; and, consequently, when a war became inevitable, the highest skill of the several contestants had to be devoted to methods of diplomatic finesse in order to secure and retain the needed allies. The mere statement of the elements of the problem is enough to show that the war was largely one of diplomacy; and when to the intricacies thus inherent in the situation were added the complications resulting from foreign interferences, the result appeared to be simply a vast entanglement of cross purposes which nothing short of omniscience could hope to unravel.

The struggle, instead of being a civil war in the ordinary sense of the term, was a contest in which more than a score of independent States were engaged, each having two or more parties struggling for the mastery within itself; each jealous of any increasing power on the part of any other State, or of the imperial Government; and, finally, each striving by more or less independent foreign alliances to lift itself into greater prominence and power. The complications of the Peloponnesian War, to the disentanglement of which Thucydides devoted his unrivalled skill, were the same in kind; but there is this important difference. The struggle of the Greeks was limited to so small a geographical area that the historian did not generally find it impossible to ascertain the causes of particular movements; but in the more modern war, the theatre of action was so vast, the struggle so prolonged, and the bitterness of the contestants so intense that a just comprehension of the period has hitherto seemed quite beyond the powers of human intelligence. Until within the present century, moreover, the secrets of the war were locked up in the archives of States and in the muniment rooms of the old German nobility. It is only very recently, therefore, that anything like a genuine history has been possible. The unquestionable literary merits of Schiller's well-known work have given it a very considerable popularity, and the name of the author has caused it to be relied upon as authority that has been echoed in a vast number of subsequent

publications. But the historical importance of Schiller's work is scarcely greater than that of Goldsmith's 'History of England.' It is a great piece of good fortune, therefore, to have at length a genuine history of the Thirty Years' War.

It is now thirty-one years since Anton Gindely, a young professor at the University of Olmütz, began the work of exploring the borders of that jungle to which he has since devoted his energies. The first published result of his researches was 'The History of the Bohemian Brethren,' in two volumes. In the preparation of this work the author had good opportunities for making himself acquainted with the history of Bohemia at the very period during which the opposing forces were preparing for the great struggle. His investigation into contemporary political history encouraged him to extend his researches; and accordingly, a few years later, he gave to the public 'Rudolph II and His Time,' also in two volumes, in which an account was presented of the complications involved in the last twelve years before the outbreak of the war. In the preparation of this work Gindely made use not only of the Austrian archives, but also of the state papers of Italy, Belgium, France, and Spain. The publication was at once recognized as one of the first importance, and the encouragement the author received led him to extend his researches not only to the history of the Bohemian insurrection which was the immediate cause of the war, but also to the war itself in all its complicated relations. The difficulties, as well as the vastness of the labor, may be inferred from the simple statement that in the preparation of one of the volumes the author found himself obliged to examine between five thousand and six thousand manuscripts that had previously been unexplored. The fourth volume of his great history brings the war down to 1623, when a sixth of the thirty years are past. It is not easy to see how the periods of Gustavus Adolphus, and Richelieu, and Oxenstiern can be regarded as less important and less intricate than the period before 1623; and one shudders to contemplate the result of the same minute and conscientious devotion to the details of all the complications between 1623 and 1648. If something like a patriarchal longevity should kindly permit the author to complete his work on the same magnificent scale, some future generation may have the advantage of a reasonably complete history of the Thirty Years' War in about twenty-four octavo volumes. But in the meantime, what was to become of the present generation of searchers after truth? Gindely's publishers seem to have been the first to reflect that an author's contemporaries have certain rights which the author is bound to respect. They succeeded in persuading the learned investigator to suspend his labors on the larger work long enough to put into a book of reasonable length and readable form the most important results of his researches. The fruits of this are the three small volumes of which the handsome work before us is a translation.

The author's preface assures us that the book rests upon the authority of investigations substantially completed for the whole period of the war. The nature of the evidence, however, is not here revealed. The reader is asked to suspend his judgment on every doubtful point until in the larger work the character of the evidence is fully set forth. These volumes are, therefore, to be considered the embodiment of the conclusions at which the author has arrived as the result of thirty years of hard study. The narrative is popular in form, though it is by no means a contribution to the light literature of the day. The author never forgets that his history is for the more intelligent portion of the

public. He has given very little space to details of sieges and battles, evidently regarding the events which lead to a conflict as far more important than the details of the conflict itself. His pages everywhere make it evident that his investigations have been directed chiefly to the end of ascertaining the causes of events and the purposes of men. He deals with what to many readers must appear to be the least interesting part of the subjects in hand; and yet it is by far the most difficult part, and the most necessary to a correct understanding of the war. The author seldom yields to the temptation to describe at length an interesting incident or a picturesque scene. He never forgets that events were directed, not by interesting considerations, but by the dull details of personal and national policy. By the very nature of the author's purpose, therefore, the book is destined to be limited in its popularity to the intelligent and the discriminating classes. It would perhaps be impossible to show a more remarkable proof of the vigor of German intelligence than that afforded by the simple fact that twenty thousand copies of this history were sold within a year after its publication.

The tortuous intricacies of the scheming which took place about the throne of Bohemia were early buried under the mass of details of the war, and Gindely was the first one to bring them forth into the light. It is now possible to ascertain wherein each of the contestants was right and wherein each was wrong. With these details we have here very little to do further than to say that there was no one of the claimants that did not at one time or another do such violence to the requirements of right as to forfeit all just claims to sympathy or favor. This is shown by the briefest possible statement of the course of events. During the negotiations between Ferdinand of Styria and Philip of Spain the Protestants availed themselves of every opportunity to advance their cause. When Ferdinand was at length "accepted" as King of Bohemia, the liberties to which the Protestants regarded themselves entitled under their Charter were so much abridged that they made a complaint to the Emperor, and when it was found that this was not likely to be heeded, they determined to summon the Protestant Estates for a consultation. Accordingly a Protestant Diet was held in March, 1618, and a second one in May of the same year. While this second meeting was in session, the plan was concocted of putting the agents of the imperial Government to death. In order to accomplish the overthrow of the imperial power it was determined to make an irrevocable breach between the two parties by the public assassination of the Regents. This plan, according to Gindely, originated in the brain of Count Thurn, the leader of the Protestants. The author relates in detail how the scheme, first proposed by Thurn, was developed in the minds of himself, Ruppa, and Fels, and how the other leaders were gradually won over to this violent project. The day of Bohemia's doom, "the beginning and the cause of all the woes that followed," was the 23d of May. The Diet was assembled in the hall of the Landtag. After hearing a protest that had been framed in answer to an attempt to prevent their meeting, the members marched to the hall of the Regents and demanded whether the threatening imperial letter originated with them. The Chief Burgrave refused all information, declaring that it was unheard of that imperial councillors, bound by oath to keep all transactions secret, should have such a demand addressed to them. Thurn replied: "Whether such a question was ever addressed to the Emperor's councillors or not is a matter of indifference; we declare, however, that we shall not leave this place without a de-

cisive answer—yes or no." Ritschan, one of the most violent of Thurn's followers, then read a declaration which he had drafted beforehand, closing with the words: "Schlauta and Martinitz are to be regarded as violators of the Royal Charter and enemies of the commonwealth." The question was immediately put to vote and was answered with a unanimous cry in the affirmative. The execution of this sentence of outlawry was immediately carried into effect. Two of the Regents and their Secretary were dragged to the window and hurled down from a height of eighty feet.

The effect of this atrocious act was, in one sense, all that Thurn had hoped for. It produced the "irreparable breach" which he had so much desired; but at the same time it did more than that, it made it evident that the impending struggle would be one of unexampled bitterness. It would have been singular indeed, if in the seventeenth century such a procedure had not stirred the fountains of vengeance to their lowest depths. The act was an unspeakable blunder; for, coming as it did at the very beginning of the contest, it was a precedent for every species of violence and revenge. The deliberateness with which it was designed, and the air of official formality with which it was carried out, deprived it entirely of all those extenuating considerations with which we justly surround any excesses that are committed in the heat of action and of passion. No reaping of whirlwinds ever more surely followed the sowing of the wind than in the course of the Thirty Years' War.

The next few months were naturally devoted to the mustering of forces and the gaining of alliances. At almost every point the Protestants were outwitted in their diplomacy. Blunders were committed in negotiating with the Prince of Transylvania, with the Count of Savoy, with the Elector of Saxony, and with James of England. The consequence was, that when the forces came to battle in the winter of 1620 the Protestants fought at great disadvantage and were easily overwhelmed. But even while the mustering of forces was going on the furies of vengeance were at work. Gindely gives the following account of what took place even before the battle of White Mountain in 1620:

"The army of Bohemia and Austria spread for miles around them want and misery, since, in spite of all the promises made them, they were again paid no money, and the soldiers were obliged to supply their wants by compulsory demands. The imperial troops also, and especially the Cossacks, lived only upon plunder, and behaved themselves like very devils. In a written complaint which the estates at Horn, notwithstanding their own connection with the insurrection, addressed to the Emperor, they were charged with maliciously reducing villages and cities to ashes, plundering poor and rich, violating boys and girls, and practising inhuman cruelties; also with stringing men and women on ropes and then shaking them; with squeezing them between blocks of wood; with tearing pieces of flesh from their bodies with pincers; with boring through their shin-bones and kneecaps, and hanging them up by their feet, all to force money out of them. The complaint further sets forth: thousands of persons died of their manifold torments, as there was no sparing of any who were Lutherans. . . . Cossacks in companies of 200 to 300 men were daily passing in all directions, not content with simple plunder, but striking down men, women, and children in the fields, or committing beastly violations upon matrons and maidens. Death was a thousand times preferable to living longer under such outrages committed upon their flesh and blood" (I., p. 217).

There can be no question in regard to the influence of this policy of personal violence on the issues of the war. Instead of intimidating and overwhelming, it exasperated and made the play of reason impossible. Indeed, it soon re-

sulted in sharp reaction. After the battle of White Mountain the Protestants were prostrate, and it is now evident that a judicious use of opportunities would have restored the power of Ferdinand. But the stalwart policy of vengeance was pursued and the opportunity was thrown away.

MALARIA IN ITALY.

Carta della Malaria dell' Italia, illustrata da Luigi Torelli, Senatore del Regno. Firenze. 1882.

La Malaria de Rome et l'ancien Drainage des Collines Romaines. Par le Pr. Conrad Tommasi-Crudeli, Directeur de l'Institut anatomique et physiologique de l'Université de Rome. Paris. 1881.

Sulla Preservazione dell' Uomo nei Paesi di Malaria. Relazione di Corrado Tommasi-Crudeli: Deputato al Parlamento. Roma. 1883.

Roma, l'Agro Romano e i Centri Abitabili. Studio del Dott. Giuseppe Pinto, Consigliere Sanitario Provinciale. Roma. 1882.

Illustrazione del Quadro sulla Salubrità Regionale di Roma. Pubblicato per cura del Prof. Francesco Scalzi, Membro del Consiglio Superiore di Sanità del Regno. Roma. 1883.

SINCE the unification of Italy much attention has been directed there to the important question of malaria, or the cause of aguish and remittent diseases. The better Italian opinion on that subject may be fairly learned from the treatises above named. Signor Tommasi-Crudeli, Professor of Pathology in the University of Rome, in 1879 believed that he had recognized the malarial cause in a microscopic organism that he named the *bacillus malarie*. This, found in certain soils not necessarily marshy, thrives under the combined influence of heat, moisture, and access to the air. Klebs, a European observer, supposed that he confirmed these observations at the time, but they have not been sustained by others, although distinguished microscopists have paid much attention to them. The existence of this bacillus is neither distinctly proved nor disproved, although from one point of view it is probable.

In Italy two-thirds of the malarial districts are on hillsides and mountain slopes, and there, as elsewhere, the absence of one of the specified conditions prevents the development of the disease-cause—for instance, a marsh that is pestilential when half drained is harmless when flooded; or, were it possible to cover an ague bearing tract with thick grassy sod, health would follow; and, conversely, the reestablishment of the old conditions would bring about the old results. A case is cited by Signor Tommasi-Crudeli to show the inherent character of the poisoning germs in certain soils. A lady who had enjoyed good health and who lived in a healthful locality was attacked with a malarial intermittent fever. This yielded easily to treatment, but developed again as soon as she resumed her ordinary course of life. Alternations of facile cures and relapses continued through some months, until her physician remarked that the relapses supervened whenever she left her bed-chamber and resumed her ordinary life in a well warmed sitting-room. This room was ornamented with a quantity of growing plants. He caused these last to be removed, and from that day her cure was complete. Signor Tommasi-Crudeli supposes that a malarial taint in the soil which nourished the plants was developed by the required degree of heat supplied by the temperature of the sitting-room. But quite as unfortunately for America as for Italy, the malarial problem is not yet solved. The map attached to Signor Torelli's essay enables us to form some

conception of the territory, which is, roughly speaking, about one-third of Italy, subject to the scourge of malaria. Of the sixty-nine Italian provinces, only six are completely free—Genoa, Porto-Maurizio, Florence, Carrara, Pesaro, and Piacenza; in thirteen it exists in a mild form; in twenty-nine more severely, while in twenty-one it attains its greatest virulence. That districts healthful during the periods of the Republic and the Empire are now rendered almost uninhabitable in summer, cannot be doubted. There is also every reason to fear that the malady has made considerable progress within the past fifteen years. The retrogression is supposed to be largely due to (1) the choking up of drainage systems and watercourses through war and the devastation or destruction of whole cities and communities—recent investigations have brought to light in now waste malarious districts perfect systems of underground drainage—*cuniculi*, often three or four stages one beneath the other, the lowest at an extraordinary depth below the upper surface; (2) the destruction of forests, which have induced malarious swamps, disarranged the climate of districts, or removed natural screens which interrupted malarious influences—it was not alone fancy that led the ancients to respect forests and groves through fear of the anger of the sylvan gods; (3) the throwing back of waters and consequent increase of subsoil moisture by the silting up of rivers and coast lines. Railways appear to have had much to do with the recent increase of malaria. Malarious earth, previously lying dormant, has been turned up, natural watercourses have been diverted, forests and thickets have been cut down to provide sleepers and to bring into cultivation tracts of country made more valuable by communication. Then, again, troops and railway employees are now scattered over all parts of the kingdom and are subjected to malarial influences. Thirty thousand of the Italian army annually are thus disabled for some days—one-third of this number more than once, thus bringing up the cases to 42,000—men in the flower of their age, well fed, and presumably of the best constitutions. Along 2,300 of the 5,200 miles of Italian railways open, malaria is said to prevail more or less. In Sicily alone 1,450 railway employees are annually prostrated, with an average of eleven days' illness each; in some districts permanent residence at the stations is impossible, and trains have to be provided to convey the staff to and from their work in the morning and at night.

These figures may indicate how important the whole question is to Italy. Numerous commissions of inquiry have been appointed, and many valuable reports have been drawn up on the subject. The recommendations have been chiefly in the direction of comprehensive systems of drainage, planting, and the establishment of colonies, under proper hygienic conditions, in malarious districts to render them healthful by draining, reclaiming, and cultivating. There are considerable difficulties, financial and otherwise, attendant on the complete carrying out of these recommendations, and we can hardly expect rapid progress. Much is hoped from the planting of the Australian gum tree (*eucalyptus*), which is proceeding in many districts, notably near railway stations. It is claimed that the roots tend to extract the malarious influence from the soil, and that the exudations from the leaves are beneficial. Signor Torelli cites some striking statistics in favor of the beneficial influence of this tree. Its usefulness probably arises from the moisture it exhausts through its extremely rapid growth. Signor Tommasi-Crudeli appears to have confidence in minute doses of arsenic as a preventive, and gives instances of its good effects among the employees on the

Calabrian and Sicilian railways. It would be difficult, however, to look forward to any permanently beneficial results from the use of this drug.

Now that Rome is again the great and growing capital of a great nation, the questions involved in the sanitation of the surrounding campagna—the *Agro Romano*—have become of national importance, and we may hope for important results in the direction of the decrease or disappearance of malaria in that portion of Italy at least. The death rate of Rome itself has been reduced from 27.81 per 1,000 in the decennial 1861-1870 to 21.43 per 1,000 in 1871-1880. It is indeed now one of the most healthful capitals in Europe. The map of Rome, illustrated by Professor Scalzi, proves how baseless is the common saying that the streets about the Trastevere and the Ghetto are the healthfullest. They are, on the contrary, at the foot of the list; while the new districts between Porta Pia and Santa Maria Maggiore, and the "Strangers' Quarter" about the Piazza di Spagna and Via Sistina, are the most healthful. It is possible that the increase of population from 208,000 in 1861-1870 to 270,000 in 1871-1880, being presumably composed chiefly of young and active persons, may to some extent qualify the great apparent gain between the two periods; while it is certainly due principally to the great improvements in the sanitation of the city and to the works which are being carried on along the banks of the Tiber and elsewhere. Though we should not select Rome as a permanent residence, it is one of the most delightful winter resorts in the world, and safe enough if the traveller uses ordinary precautions. Dr. Drummond, in a paper read before the British Medical Association in Liverpool last year, says:

"Those who do come will find the Roman climate to be, in the words of Sir J. Clark, 'one of the best in Italy,' with a mild, calm atmosphere; an absence of storms; an unusually large proportion of sunny days, permitting exercise in the open air by carriage or on foot; the winter very short and free from fogs, with almost no frost or snow; while the art treasures, historical monuments, endless subjects of antiquarian and literary research, combined with agreeable society, find pleasing occupation for the mind, and banish in a remarkable degree those little cares which do more to harm and embitter existence than the graver troubles of life."

His advice accords with that of others who have had experience of Rome—to take regular meals and plenty of sleep, to avoid hurry and fatigue, to be careful in passing from sunshine into cold galleries and churches, and in short to follow, with a little extra precaution, those laws of health which prudent persons are accustomed to observe at home.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Henry Irving's Impressions of America. Narrated in a series of Sketches, Chronicles, and Conversations. By Joseph Hatton. London: Sampson Low & Co.; Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

Henry Irving in England and America, 1838-84. By Frederic Daly. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribner & Welford.

A Study of the Prologue and Epilogue in English Literature from Shakespeare to Dryden. By G. S. B. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

English Comic Dramatists. Edited by Oswald Crawford. [Parchment Library.] New York: D. Appleton & Co.

OF books about Mr. Irving there are beginning to be enough now to fill a fairly large book-shelf, and we are inclined to paraphrase Goethe and cry, "Irving and no end." Within a scant

year we have had a catch-penny anonymous biography, Mr. Austin Brereton's careful record of the actor's career, Mr. William Archer's incisive criticism, and Mr. Frank Marshall's needless answer to it. Add to these the multitude of pamphlets, magazine articles, and newspaper criticisms and interviews since it was first announced that Mr. Irving intended to visit America, and it is at once seen that the task of the future compiler of an Irving bibliography is not easy. Now we have before us two more goodly tomes, both devoted to the worship of the Irvingite rite, or at least to the swinging of the censers before the object of adoration. Mr. Hatton's book is the more portly and the more pretentious. It is greatly to be regretted that Mr. Irving did not take the hint of the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table to the effect that it is well to have Every Man his own Boswell. Having determined to have a Boswell, it is a thousand pities that the actor did not choose a biographer in attendance having finer qualifications for the task than "Mr. Joseph Hatton, the famous London correspondent of the *New York Times*." A great many Englishmen and Englishwomen have delivered themselves of their opinions of these helpless States—and indeed the writing of a book about America is an immemorial privilege of all British subjects, acknowledged to be theirs since a time whereof the memory of man runneth not to the contrary. The impressions of America carried away by so clever a man as Mr. Irving might very well be worth reading, if they could be seen directly and not through a dense medium. There is such a simple and condescending complacency about Mr. Irving's private interviewer, Mr. Joseph Hatton, that a critic hesitates to declare frankly and fully his opinion of the book. But as the critic returns to it and recalls the reiterated self-puffery which is its chief characteristic, his heart hardens and he hesitates no longer to say that "the famous London correspondent" has written one of the cheapest, most contemptible, and most worthless books in the whole department of books about the stage—an assertion of which only those who are well-read in such literature can know the full force. It is with regret that we see Mr. Irving's name associated with the work.

Mr. Daly's book is disfigured by a tone of persistent, dogmatic, and intolerant eulogy of Mr. Henry Irving; but it is such a relief after the disagreeable snobbishness of Mr. Joseph Hatton, that this defect may be pardoned. Mr. Daly's attitude is uncritical, for he is a thick-and-thin Irvingite. He is an Irvingite of the strictest sect, and he has no mercy for heretics or indifferents. Lowell has told us that the *odium aestheticum* is quite as fierce as ever was the *odium theologicum*, and Mr. Daly's attitude toward all those who do not bow before Baal is a case in point. This deduction once made, it may be said that Mr. Daly's biography is useful and entertaining. It covers the whole of Mr. Irving's eventful and instructive career. It devotes two chapters to the sojourn of the Lyceum Company in the United States. In another chapter Mr. Daly attempts to declare the "secret of success." Yet another, and perhaps the freshest and most interesting, is given up to an enumeration and consideration of Mr. Irving's literary labors—the various magazine articles, prefaces, and addresses published and delivered now and again since Mr. Irving discovered that there was "room on top," and climbed up the ladder of fame to engage the room. There is to be noted in Mr. Daly the same amusing insularity we have seen in nearly all English writers about the stage. Like them, he knows only what has been done in London. The condition and position of dramatic art in this country are wholly

unknown to him. So we see Mr. Irving credited with reforms and new readings in "Hamlet" and in "Richard III." in which American actors had anticipated him. An appendix is devoted to a list of parts played by Mr. Irving in London since October 6, 1866, thus supplementing that given in Mr. Brereton's useful outline biography of the actor. The appendix also contains an interview with Mr. Edwin Booth, reprinted, we think, from the *Pall Mall Gazette*, which has of late developed an American fondness for "interviewing." M. Lalanze has supplied an effective etching of Mr. Irving, taken from a photograph; we infer from it that the etcher has never met the actor. There is no index.

If any more admirers of Mr. Irving are anxious to make books about him, we shall be glad to suggest one which will be of lasting value. One of the things which the student of the stage needs most and finds rarely is an exact and accurate statement as to how the great actors of the past have performed the great parts of the drama. We have no criticism of the whole performance by Garrick of any given part—no criticism at once detailed and complete. Prof. Fleming Jenkin has rescued and published in the *Nineteenth Century* and in *Macmillan's Magazine* contemporary criticisms of Mrs. Siddons in two of her best parts, which are precisely what we want. If the admirer of Mr. Irving will buy a copy of Mr. Irving's acting edition of any Shaksperian play—and this acting edition is in itself a document of great importance in considering an actor's value; if he will have this interleaved with blank pages; if he will carefully follow Mr. Irving's performance, noting in the text all his "readings" and setting down on the opposite blank page all his illustrative "business," he will have preserved a record of the actor's art which may do more for Mr. Irving's fame a century hence than a library of declamatory eulogy. Mr. Booth has published his 'Prompt-Books,' with the assistance of Mr. William Winter; and he has thus provided any of his admirers with the opportunity to set down exactly what he does on the stage. It is not too late yet for some of Salvini's ardent admirers to put on record the exact facts of that great actor's performance of *Othello*. What would we not now give for this skeleton of Kean's *Othello*, of Garrick's *Richard*, of Betterton's *Hamlet*?

The writer of the very pleasant and gossiping book on the prologue and the epilogue as they existed in the English drama from the time of Shakspeare to that of Dryden has an excellent subject, and he has treated it with knowledge and judgment. It is a subject, too, which has been practically neglected hitherto, for we can recall little or nothing about it except the opening and closing chapters of the late Dutton Cook's carefully-compiled 'Book of the Play.' Indeed, the only serious fault we have to find with "G. S. B.'s" essay is that it is too short. It stops with Dryden, although another chapter, or at most two, would have brought it down to Sheridan, who was practically the last of the writers of prologues and epilogues. This extension would have allowed a consideration of Garrick's work in this field, in which he had no superior but Dryden. The task would have been easy, also, since there exists a collection of English prologues and epilogues, published in five volumes, early in this century. As "G. S. B." succeeds in showing, the addresses to the audience before and after the play are most important documents in the history of the drama, containing many facts not elsewhere recorded, and abounding in valuable information on the manners and customs of the time and of the town.

Mr. Crawford tells us that "in making the selections from the comic dramatists which are to follow, it has been my endeavor not merely to put together at haphazard a number of comedy scenes that shall amuse and entertain the reader of them, but to give him in a succinct form something which shall thoroughly represent our English comedy literature." And in this endeavor we believe that Mr. Crawford has been fairly successful—as successful, indeed, as any one can be, for, in truth, our English comedy literature cannot be thoroughly represented by such a series of selections from a dozen dramatists, even when as shrewdly made as in this case. That Mr. Crawford's elegant extracts, his golden treasury of the best bits of the best plays of the best English writers of comedy from Shakspeare to Sheridan, have been chosen with great skill and afford excellent reading is indisputable, and we are not inclined to quarrel with the effort to attain the unattainable, since it has given a greater symmetry and a higher quality to the volume as it stands. We are inclined to think that the editor, in considering Sheridan's plagiarisms, has much overstated the case against him, but this is a trifle. The introduction and the prefatory notes are full of pith and point, and they can be read with as much pleasure, almost, as the comic scenes they introduce—and surely no editor of an anthology could ask for higher praise.

The Elements of Political Economy. By Émile de Laveleye. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1884.

COLERIDGE said of a certain production that it was history not merely popularized but plebified, and the remark might be applied to a great many treatises that assume to make easy what is in its nature difficult. The world is full of abridgments of universal history, of compendiums of literature, and of elements of all the sciences. What becomes of them all is as great a question as what becomes of all the pins; but the pins are at least of some service before they are lost. Doubtless the convenience of beginners is promoted by the use of text-books that present but few of the facts of a science, and that expound only the leading principles; but unless they show the manner in which the facts have been established, and the logical processes by which the principles have been derived, they are unfit for their purpose. Those who depend upon them are as certain to lose by it as those who undertake to prescribe for their ailments by the aid of the 'Domestic Cyclopædia of Medicine,' or to preserve themselves from legal embarrassments by following the 'Business Man's Guide.' But in such a science as political economy, certainly there is no royal road. If one has not the time to master it, he had better let it alone. An ordinary text-book can do no more than inform the student what theories have been maintained by certain authors, and, if it pretends to do no more, it may be of service. But if the learner is led to suppose that by acquainting himself with the views of certain men, and even committing them to memory, he is mastering the science, he sustains a positive injury.

We regret to say that the work of M. de Laveleye seems to us to be of the worthless class that we have described. It is with reluctance that we speak so unfavorably of it. The amiability of the author almost disarms the critic, and the simplicity of his style imparts a charm to his matter. He has been an industrious investigator, and his labors in certain directions have been highly honored. But as we read this book we seem to be transported back to the eighteenth century, when philosophers imme-

dutely presented whatever opinions happened to enter their heads as the most profound truths. It is difficult to imagine the mental state of a writer who deliberately and in all seriousness publishes such statements as this: "A country without mines will produce no metals, and a people living far inland will not be able to devote itself to navigation." We could quote pages that read like extracts from one of our party platforms or from a school composition. We shall select a passage that illustrates the author's method of dealing with statistics, as well as the sobriety of his judgment:

"According to calculations made in the United States, in ten years alcohol imposed on the country a direct expenditure of about 300,000,000, and an indirect expenditure of a similar sum. It has sent 100,000 orphans to the asylums, it has brought 138,000 persons to the prison or the workhouse, it has led to 10,000 suicides, and has made 200,000 widows and 1,000,000 orphans. The total expenditure for civilized countries can hardly be less than 250,000,000. Opium, which brings those who smoke it to idiocy, annually costs China at least 16,000,000.

"The inexplicable habit, borrowed from the savages, of burning a leaf of tobacco between the lips, in order to absorb a certain dose of a highly-noxious, narcotic poison, costs . . . civilized countries generally more than 120,000,000. . . . The highest part of the human race accordingly spends some 400,000,000, to poison itself in large or small doses.

"Women also pay thousands of pounds for precious stones, which have no other effect than to foster two serious vices—vanity in those who wear them and envy in those foolish enough to wish to have them.

"Throw into the sea the alcohol and opium, the tobacco and precious stones, and nothing will be lost. On the contrary, those who were poisoning themselves and corrupting their minds and bodies will gain much in moral and physical well being. Things whose destruction improves the condition of mankind cannot be true wealth."

This is not what we understand to be the science, or even the elements, of political economy. If every one would give up foolish expenses and live soberly, righteously, and godly, the world would be much better off than it is. But it is absurd to attempt to construct the economics of such a world, and it is vain to take such an ideal as an end in a practical treatise. We are unable to think of any class of persons that will be benefited by the perusal of this book. It will not interest children, nor can it instruct adults. Mill's treatise is quite elementary enough. Every one that is competent to deal with the subject at all can understand it, and no one ought to try to deal with such a subject until he has been trained in the methods of reasoning that are essential to its successful treatment. Such books as this can only serve to furnish learners with conclusions for which they can assign no premises and facts for which they know no authority. Its economic teachings are sound enough, according to our way of thinking, but if the students of our colleges are to get their ideas of political economy through such media, we shall contemplate the future of that science with melancholy forebodings.

The American Horsewoman. By Mrs. Elizabeth Karr. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS very readable and instructive volume has been written by an appreciative friend of horses who, from extended experience and careful teaching, advises her sisters on almost every point where a novice needs information. And many well used to horses also may read and learn. We cannot altogether agree with her, but we admit at once and frankly that the author has the advantage of speaking *ex cathedra* from the side-saddle, while the reviewer only looks on from above two stirrups.

The book is inspired by love, but the love is not idolatry: there is careful discrimination between animals, and recognition that the physi-

cal and moral attributes of the very best horses are no nearer perfection than are those of men. In fact, the frequent caution of possible peril might lead a timid beginner to doubt if there were any road of safety through so many contingencies of evil. But it is not undue fear; it is simply prudence pointing out what may generally be avoided. The animal as a vital machine receives a plain, well-illustrated, untechnical description that many others than horsewomen might study with profit. The rider's dress and personal fittings are then described with the wealth of detail that delights a practical woman's heart, and that leaves nothing to the vague generalities a man would be compelled to employ—this is the characteristic and makes the value of the book. It states distinctly what the author thinks it is best to do, and then carefully, without waste of words but with plenty of them, describes exactly how to do it; and almost every possibility of equipment or of *manège* is covered.

Where we dissent is in the eulogy of the three-pommel saddle and of the rising trot. The third horn the author regards as so essential to comfortable riding that she barely refers to the older form as "the saddle of our grandmothers." The next edition should contain a chapter for those old-fashioned people who, from ignorance or preference, cling to the freedom of the archaic style, and resent being held in place. Any horse may fall, and it seems almost impossible for a woman taken unawares to release the left leg so as to escape promptly—whether she tries to leap from the rearing horse, as advised (p. 286), or whether the animal, by some accident, goes down to the front or side. The hunting horn is safer in that the unskilled rider is less liable to go over the horse's head. But we have seen in actual use a railing, like that of an arm-chair, raised about a saddle. Now if the rider is to be mechanically encased, why not make also the railed saddle popular?

A kindred abomination is the rising trot. The centaurs were not all male, and the perfect horsewoman even yet is as a part of her horse. The woman who rides without a saddle—and there are such—does not fly through the air except as her horse does. Some superb riders are those who, with the leg over the horn of a man's California saddle, follow every curve of the horse's career. No shying can unseat them. The beginning, equally with the end of all riding for women, as for men, is independence of the saddle. Put the girl upon the girthed blanket, and the same faculty that guides her in the ballroom or upon skates will ultimately keep her there. It is primarily a matter of balance; and although the new school, entangled among the three pommels, may not believe it, the average woman, if self-possessed, needs little mechanical help. There are horses that Satan might not ride, but a decently-behaved animal and a vigorous woman will soon be in accord. The English trot is essentially artificial, and it is an artifice that adds neither beauty nor efficiency to its possessor. The woman or man who is always, as it were, on the wing, has much greater dependence for exercise and progress upon stirrups and pigskin than upon horseflesh. The trick of rising is confessedly unsafe (p. 302), it is assuredly unnatural, and it is anything but picturesque. If the natural seat is, as the author expresses it, the cavalry seat, one may be pretty sure that the horsemen of the State are held to it for sufficient reasons.

A limitation of this admirable book is that it is, not only primarily but almost solely, intended for the wealthier few who command every equine luxury. Makeshifts should be noticed, especially for the fair majority who traverse

country roads. One of the best of these is a contrivance used in the interior of California by ladies, some of whom do not own and some of whom discard a side-saddle. A broad girth has on its inner surface a wedge-shaped pad, the square end uppermost, which, pressing against the curve of the ribs on the off side, holds itself in place. Directly above the wedge is a leather handle, that may be grasped in an emergency. From the near side hangs a stiff leather stirrup. Upon blankets thus held down, the loping or the easier trotting horses of that region will carry their riders, without the risk of sore backs, and with ease and grace, quite independently of the costlier appliances of the saddlers' shops. It might startle Central Park, but what is serviceable in the Sacramento Valley should be applicable to the highways of the East. It is, further, a little odd that one so familiar with horse equipment should have ignored entirely the so-called dragon or Spanish knot, that so excellently and completely replaces buckles in fastening the girth. It is so simple and so safe that this device should always be prominent on a saddle that the rider may be required to adjust. In the composition of the book we observe but one actual slip, and that probably of the type: Queen Charlotte is represented (p. 67) as entering London on a pillion in 1700, instead of 1761.

Our commentary has grown far beyond the limit we set, and it is only because the volume is so admirable that we have allowed it such space. It is fascinating in its well-controlled enthusiasm; it is full of details that all riders should know, is wise and clear in its instruction, and is invaluable to all women who hope to ride—especially if they will use the bearing pommel and will rise to the trot.

Wit, Wisdom, and Philosophy of Jean Paul Friedrich Richter. Edited by Giles P. Hawley. Funk & Wagnalls. 1884. Pp. 225.

NOTHING affords a more striking illustration of American nervousness and impatient haste than the national craving for literary hotch-potch. In the majority of the newspapers columns of paragraphs take the place of articles, longer pieces are sure to be overlooked unless provided with "catching" head-lines, and soon the value of an editor will be measured by his ability to manufacture crisp epigrams. Many pens have been busy for several years condensing the classics, and making birthday books of the works of all the great writers, and the little book now under consideration belongs to a similar category. It contains translations of short extracts from the works of an author who was at one time read by all the women and young men of Germany, but who is now almost forgotten. They are arranged under various headings, as Nature, Art, Society, Friendship, Love, Marriage, Education, Satire, Religion, etc. Many of these extracts justify Carlyle's tribute to Richter's fancy—"hanging like the sun a jewel on every grass blade, and sowing the earth at large with Orient pearl." Indeed, no author is better adapted for being treated in such a way than Richter, for he had the habit of scattering throughout his writings in the greatest profusion gems of thought in poetic form, which can be better appreciated separately than in the places assigned to them, where their multitudinousness destroys their effect. Jean Paul's fate is a terrible warning to all authors of the value of a good style. Had he, with his fertile imagination, possessed the literary instinct of Heine or Goethe, he would be as popular as ever. But there is a constant sophomoric straining after humor, which becomes tiresome, and an over-sentimentality—an at-

mosphere of "oh" and "ah" and "alas"—which offends modern readers as much as the intricate and inconsequent style and the appearance of affectation. Some allowance must perhaps be made for the fact that the people whom Richter painted were queer folks; but that does not quite account for the moonshiny tone of his writings, so directly opposed to modern naturalism and literary photography. His casual epigrams are the best products of his genius, and Mr. Hawley has made an excellent collection of them, well translated in most cases. That in the strange world in which Richter lived the ideas on love, friendship, marriage, and happiness were the same as elsewhere in different ages may be seen by these extracts. To authors more valuable advice has never been given than is contained in these few words: "He never wrote without having read himself full on the subject; and, the reverse, he never read without having first thought himself hungry."

Biographie Vendomoise: Histoire par ordre alphabétique de la vie publique et privée de tous les personnages remarquables nés dans le Vendomois, et de tous ceux qui s'y sont signalés par leurs services et leurs travaux. Ornée de portraits et de fac-similes. Par le Marquis de Rochambeau. Tome Ier. Paris: Champion. 1884. 8vo, pp. 407.

THIS curious volume, with its eighty-two brief biographies, and its dozen or more portraits of its most notable subjects, reaches only through the "D's." It is interesting as a proof of the strong local feeling that still attaches to the men of note in the immediate region of their birthplace, and as showing that provincial France is proud of its ancient glories. The alphabetical order makes queer neighbors; venerable saints, great historical characters, actresses, men of affairs, kings and their kinsfolk, philanthropists, travellers, and revolutionary chiefs, jostle each other in rapid succession, but all furnish forth a lively picture of the elements that go to make up the history of one of the French provinces that still retains much of its old character. The Bourbons and the Condés make a great showing; and some of the early church dignitaries, heads of the once famous monastic establishments, with a few notable literary and legal worthies, furnish the historic and antiquarian subjects. There is a

curious story of a man named Girodon, changed by him to Dorgoni, who played an important part in Rangon, and after telling it to his friends in France in print in 1862, died in the East in 1865. His case was but another proof of the defects of the French in their dealings with foreign people. The book is a very interesting contribution to the growing library of local history, as it is full of local color, and really a noteworthy publication.

Superior Fishing; or, The Striped Bass, Trout, Black Bass, and Bluefish of the Northern States, etc., etc. By Robert Barnwell Roosevelt. New York: Orange Judd Co. 1884.

THIS is a new edition of a deservedly popular book, which combines instruction in the art of angling and information about the habits of the best fish of the Northern States, with some delightful narrative of personal experience in their pursuit. Nearly one-half the volume is devoted to the fish of Lake Superior, a subject on which an angler may justifiably grow enthusiastic. The Harmony and Batchawaung Rivers, on the north shore of the lake, and the sport they afford are fully treated of, but we have not, in this or any other book on Lake Superior, found mention of the Two Heart, a river on the American shore, twenty miles above Whitefish Point, which we think fully equal to either of the above-named streams in the quantity and size of trout.

There is a good chapter on fly-tying, which gives the best American substitutes in feathers for tying English trout flies. We do not agree with Mr. Roosevelt in his opinion that a salmon rod should be twenty feet long. The same reason for lightness exists as with trout rods, and a rod of sixteen or eighteen feet in the hands of anybody knowing how to handle it is ample to fish for and kill the biggest salmon of the Cascapedia or Restigouche.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, A. V. Testing Machines: their History, Construction, and Use. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Adams, R. C. Travels in Faith from Tradition to Reason. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.
Arminius Vambéry. His Life and Adventures, Written by Himself. Cassell & Co.
A Western Journey with Mr. Emerson. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Banneker, the Afro-American Astronomer. From the Posthumous Papers of Martha E. Tyson. Edited by her Daughter. Philadelphia: Friends' Book Association.
Bancroft, Prof. J. W. A Method of English Composition. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 65 cents.

Bellamy, E. Miss Luddington's Sister. A Romance of Immortality. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Brunner, A. W. Cottages; or, Hints on Economical Building. With a Chapter on Water Supply, Drainage, Sewerage, etc., by W. P. Gerhard. William T. Comstock. \$1.
Carter, Rev. T. T. Harriet Morsell. A Memoir. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.
Comoy, M. Étude Pratique sur les Marées Fluviales et notamment sur le Mascaret, application aux travaux de la partie maritime des Fleuves. Texte Atlas. Paris: Gauthier-Villars; New York: F. W. Christern.
Countess of Monte-Christo. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. \$1.
Election by Lot the Only Remedy for Political Corruption. Montreal: Dawson Brothers.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Ninth Edition. Vol. XVII.—Mot-Orm. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Ewing, Juliana Horatia. Jackanapes. Illustrations by R. Caldecott. Boston: Roberts Brothers.
Eyland, Maj. S. The Evolution of a Life. S. W. Green's Son. \$1.50.
Hawley, G. P. Wit, Wisdom, and Philosophy of Jean Paul Fred. Richter. Funk & Wagnalls. \$1.
Hearn, L. Stray Leaves from Strange Literature. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Henkel, Fr. The Mistress of Ibichstein. A Novel. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.
Knox, J. J. United States Notes; a History of the Various Issues of Paper Money by the Government of the United States. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Krehbiel, H. E. Notes on the Cultivation of Choral Music and the Oratorio Society of New York. New York: Edward Schuberth & Co. 1884.
Laag, Mrs. Andrew. Dissolving Views. Harper & Brothers. 35 cents.
Levy, Amy. A Minor Poet, and Other Verses. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Lippincott's Magazine. Vol. XXXIII. Philadelphia. \$2.
Mansfield, L. W. Traces of the Plan of Our Being, so Far as Revealed in the Mental Plan and in the Preparation Therein for the Precepts and Doctrines of Christ. Second Edition. E. & J. B. Young.
My Ducats and My Daughter. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Nordau, M. The Conventional Lies of Civilization. Chicago: L. Schick.
Olliphant, L. Piccadilly: a Fragment of Contemporary Biography. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Ouida. Princess Napraxine. A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.
Parker, Jenny Marsh. Rochester: a Story Historical. Rochester: Scrantom, & etmore & Co.
Pitman, Mrs. E. K. Elizabeth Fry. Boston: Roberts Brothers. \$1.25.
Raimund, G. A Hard Heart. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.25.
Reade, C. A Perilous Secret. Harper & Brothers. 40 cents.
Reade, C. Good Stories. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Renan, Ernest. Nouvelles Études d'Histoire Religieuse. Paris: Calmann Lévy. 1884. New York: F. W. Christern.
Smith, W. Extempore Preaching. Hartford: Brown & Gross.
Stories by American Authors. Vol. IV. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Streckfuss, A. Quicksands. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.50.
Taylor, Jane and Ann. Tales, Essays, and Poems. With a Memoir by Grace A. Oliver. Boston: Roberts Brothers. \$1.25.
Teaching of the Twelve Apostles. Text and Translation. Together with Critical and Illustrative Papers by Eminent Scholars. Reproduced from the Journal of Christian Philosophy. J. A. Paine.
Tip Cat. By the Author of 'Miss Toosey's Mission' and 'Laddie.' E. & J. B. Young & Co.
The Annual Register: A Review of Public Events, at Home and Abroad, for 1883. New series. London: Rivingtons.
The Poetical Works of Aubrey de Vere. Vol. I. and Vol. II. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Toliet, H. The Hollanders in Nova Zembla. An Arctic Poem. Translated from the Dutch by D. Van Felt. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.
Turgenieff, I. S. Mumu, and the Diary of a Superfluous Man. Funk & Wagnalls.
Weine, A. J. The Discoveries of America to the Year 1625. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$4.50.
Wünsche, Lic. Dr. Aug. Lehre der zwölf Apostel nach der Ausgabe des Metropolitens Philotheos Bryennios. 1884. Leipzig: Otto Schulze; New York: Westermann.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLO-
pædia for Housekeepers. \$2.50.
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LIFE OF JOHN KALB. Major-General in the Revolutionary Army. By Friedrich Kapp. 12mo, \$1.75.

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